The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Democratic politicians in Washington are reported as elated, and the Republicans as depressed, by the tone of the speeches delivered on Tuesday week, when the Republican campaign in Ohio was opened. Sherman, McKinley, Foraker, Bushnell, and all the other speakers made the tariff the chief issue, with the promise that the question should be reopened and a general revision made if the Republicans carried the national election next year. The Democratic managers in Ohio are credited with the purpose of printing verbatim reports of the Republican speeches and spreading them broadcast among the business men and in the industrial centres of the State as the best sort of campaign documents, so confident are they that the people will rebuke any party that proposes another general agitation of the tariff question just as commercial interests are adjusting themselves successfully to the existing law. The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* reports that it is felt by many conservative Republicans there that, if the campaign in Ohio is waged this fall upon the tariff issue only, as seems to be indicated by the speeches at Springfield, not only will Gov. Campbell wipe out the enormous Republican majority of last year, but "the Legislature will certainly have a majority in favor of Senator Brice's reëlection." But what else can the Ohio Republicans do than threaten to overhaul the tariff and restore McKinleyism when they make McKinley their "favorite son"?

The free-coinage men, like the high-tariff men, recognize the disastrous effect upon their cause of the return of national prosperity. Congressman Newlands of Nevada, chairman of the executive committee of the National Silver party, frankly confessed on Sunday that, "if business continues to improve, and it turns out that the improvement is permanent, the silver issue is dead." The reason is that, "when the people are occupied with profitable business affairs, they have neither the time nor the inclination to discuss money questions." Moreover, Mr. Newlands sees but faint reason for doubting that the present prosperity will prove lasting. He is consequently forced to the unwilling conclusion that silver has ceased to be an issue.

We know now why Quigg has resigned his seat in Congress. He has greater work on hand as editor of the *Press*. He is going to take this terrible prosperity under a free-trade tariff sharply in hand and stop it at once. As Congressman he did his best, according to contract, to "smash" the Wilson tariff; as editor he is going to smash the higher wages and the better business which have attended that tariff. As a first step he has sent out personal letters to manufacturers whose names have appeared in nefarious articles in the Democratic press in connection with "alleged" increase in wages. Quigg tells them that "it will be a great favor to *me*," and a "service to all your countrymen," if, in some way, wages can be shown not to have increased, business to be not so good, and the country not "on the high road to unexampled prosperity." One of the firms to whom this plaintive appeal was sent has remailed it to us, with the pious wish that we would commiserate Quigg in his "desperate struggle to prove that the present prosperity is an iridescent dream." But this is doing injustice to one of our greatest thinkers. When he took charge of the *Press*, he announced that nothing but pure thought should emanate from him—thought which would be a blessing to the country. By thinking hard enough, he has no doubt whatever that he can keep wages down and diminish the volume of business by one-half.

The declaration of Senator Mills of Texas against the free coinage of silver is significant, particularly because it adds another to the list of Democratic leaders who are openly fighting against the silver delusion, and moreover a Democrat from that part of the country in which the silver heresy has had the largest following. The courage displayed by one Democratic leader after another in confessing that study of the question has convinced him of previous error, is in striking contrast with the silence of Republican leaders and Republican gatherings on this question. There was a great opportunity for the Republicans of Ohio to place themselves on record on this subject last week on the occasion which brought together their most prominent men at Springfield. McKinley, who in 1891 denounced President Cleveland as having, during his first administration, "dishonored one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold," might have set himself right before his State, but even Senator Sherman had nothing positive to say on the subject. Senator Mills presents very clearly the evils to the country at large which would follow the free coinage of silver and the adoption of the silver standard. It would be, perhaps, too much to expect that a Senator who from his seat last February advised the Secretary of the Treasury to solve his difficulties, not by issuing bonds to restore the gold-redemption fund, but by tendering silver dollars in payment of the Government's paper obligations, should understand in the following September that the retirement of greenbacks would be the true way out of our monetary embarrassment.

It is announced by Platt's friends that his victory in the primary elections of this city and Brooklyn, giving him overwhelming control of the late Republican State convention, thereby assures him control of the delegation from New York to the national Republican convention of next year. It is further announced by his friends that Platt will thus be able to use the New York delegation against Harrison and McKinley and in favor of Reed or some other candidate of his choice. It is still further announced from the same and other quarters that Quay and Platt have formed a combination to defeat the nomination of Harrison by the national convention, and to bring about the nomination of some candidate of their choice. Of their ability to do this they seem to have no doubt. Quay, following his invariable custom, makes no boasts and talks very little, but Platt, being a much less astute person, becomes hilarious over his victory in the primaries, speaks of himself as *vox populi, vox dei*, and makes little concealment of his belief that he and Quay have the next Republican candidacy for the Presidency firmly in their grasp.

Now the great obstacle in the way of Quay and Platt is their own reputations. Everybody knows what they are after in politics. Everybody knows that they are against Harrison because he did not give them all they asked when he was President. Quay claimed that Harrison owed his election entirely to him and to the way in which he, as chairman of the national committee, had conducted the campaign. He accordingly demanded as his reward the practical control of the federal patronage. Harrison not only refused this demand, but declined to have any but the most distant personal relations with Quay, on the ground that he could not, as an avowedly religious man, hold friendly intercourse with so avowedly wicked a man as Quay. Platt's grievance is of the same order. He demanded as a reward for his services not merely the distribution of all federal patronage for New York, but the secretaryship of the Treasury for himself. Harrison gave him the patronage, but refused the secretaryship, and on that ground Platt has been fighting him for four years or more.

Everybody must approve of the movement now to be undertaken by the Grand Army of the Republic to get the Supreme Court of the United States to decide that

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a pension is a "vested right." The Commander-in-Chief favors bringing a suit at once to see if such a decision cannot be had, and he further shows his astuteness by suggesting ex-President Harrison as the very counsel to argue the case. If it could be brought up just before the next Republican convention, there would be no doubt of an eloquent time. We fear, however, that the McKinley and Reed judges would combine to prevent the case from being advanced. But whoever brings the suit, the great thing is to get a pension declared a vested right. There has been far too much cancelling of pensions fraudulently obtained, too many arbitrary reductions to make payments correspond with fussy laws, and what we want is some broad and high-sounding legal principle to stop all this. It should be broad enough, too, to make grand juries give over their offensive practice of indicting people for pension frauds. A Supreme Court decision that a pension is a vested right would have been an incalculable boon to those hundred-odd unfortunates in Oklahoma whom an ignorant grand jury has just indicted for being a little careless about the way they went to work to get pensions. If a man is denied a vested right, he cannot be expected to observe every petty technicality of the law in fighting to secure it. By all means let the Supreme Court hasten to round out our beautiful pension system by deciding that a pensioner's pension is his castle.

The present Governor of Mississippi is nearing the end of the longest single term ever filled by an executive in this country. His State is one which fell early into the practice of choosing a Governor for as long a period as a President, and the present incumbent was elected in 1889 to serve four years. In 1890 came the convention to revise the Constitution, and this body provided that the Governor and other State officials should have their terms, which would normally end at the close of 1893, extended through two years more, so that they would hold office continuously for six years. Moreover, the convention assumed the right to declare the new Constitution, including this provision, in force without submitting it to the people, so that the extra two years constituted a gift of power that never was endorsed at the polls. The convention that framed a new constitution for New York last year provided that the minor State officials and Senators to be elected this fall should hold office for three years, instead of two, so as to make the future elections of all State officials and Senators come in the even-numbered years; but this provision was submitted to the people, and, so far as the records show, there has never been any precedent for the action taken by the Mississippi convention.

Judge Gaynor's remarkable decision of a few months ago, to the effect that, under the Brush act of the last Legislature, all applicants for positions in the State service for which the remuneration does not exceed four dollars a day are exempt from competitive examinations, has been reversed by the General Term of the Supreme Court, second department. A war veteran had applied to the Civil-Service Commission for a non-competitive examination for a position in the service. When the Commission refused to give it to him, he applied to Judge Gaynor for a mandamus to compel the Commission to examine him. The Judge granted it, taking the ground that, if the Brush act applied to veterans only, and not to civilians, the discrimination so granted would be unconstitutional, but that the language, "competitive examinations shall not be deemed practicable or necessary in cases where the compensation or other emolument of the office does not exceed four dollars per day" applied to all candidates for such offices, and that therefore the Commission must examine the appellant non-competitively. If this view of the law were to stand, the result would be that 86 per cent. of the service in Brooklyn, 65 per cent. of that in New York State, and 87 per cent. of that in New York city would be taken from the competitive system, and all applicants for positions affected would be examined singly and non-competitively. It would, in effect, annul the civil-service act, as the positions of the higher sort not included within its scope are filled mainly by promotion from the lower. In reversing Judge Gaynor, the General Term holds that veterans must take competitive examinations, but, once having passed, they must have the preference. All the Judges concur in declaring the Brush act to be unconstitutional.

It would be cause for general congratulation if the outcome of the international yacht races could be accepted as a huge joke. Surely, when all the preparations which were in progress in two countries for many months are considered, the net result is ludicrous enough. We have succeeded in "keeping the cup" under conditions which are satisfactory to nobody. Not a single race has been sailed which anybody considers to have been a final test of the merits of the competing yachts. The American boat won one race, which was a fair test of sailing qualities in a light wind. The English boat won another, which was subsequently awarded to the American boat because by a most unfortunate mischance the latter was crippled at the start by her competitor in a foul which everybody admits was accidental. The third race was won by the American boat because the English boat declined to sail, owing to the crowded condition of the course. This was a real grievance for both contestants, but it must be remembered that Lord Dunraven was prepared for it by previous experience, and should have stipulated in advance for a change of course. An English newspaper that is seldom heard of outside of London thinks that Americans look upon the cup as an asset or a fetish, and are determined to keep it by fair means or foul. It is needless to say that no such view is taken by anybody here. The America's cup yields no income, nor is it an object of worship. Americans do not consider it worth having unless it is earned, and they deplore the chapter of accidents which frustrated the race this year as much as anybody can.

But that the yacht race dwarfed all other topics, our Jingo press would have had more to say on the case of Florencio Bustamente. Bustamente was a citizen of Salvador, and was not free from the revolutionary propensities of his fellow-citizens. His side, however, was not the winning one, and he was compelled to flee. After giving occasion for the display of considerable international law by escaping on the American steamer *Bennington*, Bustamente took refuge in Mexico, and, after some sojourn there, ventured within the jurisdiction of Salvador on the American steamer *City of Sydney*. The Salvadorean authorities, not having the fear of the American press before them, came on board the *Sydney* and dragged Bustamente forth. The case appears to be the same as that of Barrundia, in which Secretary Tracy so distinguished himself, except that in the present instance there is no naval officer to be disciplined. As the *Tribune* observes, when the particulars are more fully known similar discussions and excitement will probably take place. There will be this difference, however, that the Department of State is now conducted according to legitimate standards of international law and diplomacy, and no United States officer will be degraded for obeying the plain requirements of comity, nor any attempt be made to win party success by bullying feeble states.

Mr. Balfour's shot at bimetallism continues to be heard round the world, and its absolutely fatal effect is shown not only by the consternation and unwonted silence of bimetallists, but by the unconcealed and rather malicious hilarity of their opponents. Particularly in Germany, the country that was going to call and possess the conference which Mr. Balfour says would be, even if held, nothing but a clash of irreconcilables, has a great deal of wicked fun been poked at Herr Arendt and Count Herbert Bismarck. The latter, it seems, has made a great deal of his intimate knowledge of English politics, and has kept the agrarians and bimetallists in high feather by boasting of what "mein Freund Balfour" was going to do. Angry and irreverent inquiries are now hurled at him from all sides about this "sure thing" gone wrong like so many others of the kind. International bimetallism has ceased

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to be of any use even as a "dodge" to be put into a platform; and that is about as low an estate as a man could wish for his worst enemy.

The general attitude of the new ministry towards the Irish is exciting in England the liveliest curiosity as to its effect on the home-rule question. A complete *volte-face* has evidently been determined on since the old days of "brave Mr. Balfour" and coercion. For the calm superciliousness and hardly veiled contempt with which Arthur Balfour treated the Irish in 1886, his brother Gerald has substituted the most studied politeness and even deference. Compliments are lavished on the Irish debaters. Credit is given them for lofty motives, and their indulgence is solicited for trying situations. "Tim" Healy, in particular, is accorded the rank of a parliamentarian of the first order, while Dillon and Justin McCarthy are reasoned with apologetically and even beseechingly. In Mr. Gerald Balfour's statement of what his Irish policy would be, he promised nearly everything the people could desire in the way of material aid and prosperity, and hoped the Irish members would approve of it all, but intimated that whether they did or not, it would be carried out. He is now travelling in Ireland, and said to be making promises of appropriations and grants in aid to every town councillor and poor-law guardian he meets. There is talk, too, of "a royal residence" to be occupied by the Duke of York, who is to win popular affection by a liberal expenditure.

The Pope's letter to the English people, politely inviting them all to become good Catholics, created no great stir that we ever heard of, but the Archbishop of Canterbury has felt compelled to answer it. He considerately refers to it as "a certain friendly advance made from a foreign church to the people of England." Christian unity is as dear to the heart of "Edw. Cantuar." as it can possibly be to Leo's. Did not the Lambeth Conference call for special prayers for the unity of Christendom? But the Pope seems to be singularly misinformed about the true road to unity. The Roman Communion once had Western Christendom united, but was not able to retain its hold on the nations. They are not likely to go back into that broken-down sheepfold. On the other hand, argues the Archbishop, the Anglican Communion is just the one for all other churches, East and West, to compromise upon. Not only is this unique position of the English Church forced upon it by "history," but that church "seems not uncertainly marked by God" to bring about reunion. We do not know what the Pope can say to this.

This year's Congress of German Catholics at Munich attracted perhaps less attention than any of its predecessors; but this of itself is highly significant. That the old militant tone should have so largely passed away is, in other words, fully as important a fact as anything that was said or done at the Congress. The change from the aggressive attitude of a few years ago is no doubt due, in good part, to the quiet but firm influence of Leo XIII.—"the reasonable Pope," as Bismarck has called him. With a larger and more statesman-like mind than Pius IX., he aims to extend the sway of the Church by conciliation instead of by violent protests and vain reclamations. The German Catholics, of course, repeated their demand for religious education in the public schools, for the creation of new Catholic universities, and for the "reform of the state on Christian principles," whatever that may mean. But this was mostly perfunctory. Real heart was put only into the orations and resolutions in favor of making religion an efficient ally of the state against anarchistic disorder and revolutionary violence. "Loyal to Pope and Emperor" was a popular phrase frequently heard, and William's despatch of greeting to the Congress falls in very well, in this view of the case, with his recent declaration of war against the German Socialists.

One of the features of the Paris Exposition of 1900 is to be a second World's Parliament of Religions. So, at least, affirms a French abbé, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, where we learn that the chief Protestant and Jewish authorities of France have agreed to coöperate in the affair, while two French cardinals and other Catholic dignitaries likewise favor the proposition. When the Chicago parliament closed, an enthusiastic delegate proposed that the next one be held at Benares, apparently on the principle that an exhibit of a good variety of religions would be most effective where religion is most needed. But Benares probably has no advantage over Paris in that regard. Indeed, if the location of the parliament were to be determined on the ground of going where there was the greatest occasion for bearing "testimony" against an evil world, for confronting wickedness, and especially ridicule, at its worst, the fitness of Paris could hardly be questioned. Some of the muftis and other parti-colored gentlemen from the Orient had a pretty hard time of it at the hands of the Chicago press; what will be left of them when the humorists of the boulevard get through with them? The least the wicked French papers will be likely to insist upon will be the need of admitting to the parliament a delegate to speak for the favorite national cult of the great goddess Lubricity.

Objection is made to the parliament by some religious leaders in France, and will be more sharply made by religious leaders in this country and in England, because it is too much like bowing in the house of Rimmon. Tolerance is all very well, but there is such a thing as being too public and effusive about it. To admit that the virtues of the heathen are not all, as St. Augustine preferred to describe them, "splendid vices" may be necessary in private, but, when proclaimed from a world's-fair platform, has a tendency to "cut the nerve of missions" even more surely than shaky ideas about probation after death. Then there is the added danger that the Hindus may send over some more of their keen disputants. It is awkward, to say the least, to have them display both better English and better logic than the men put up to answer them; such encounters cannot be too strictly confined to Calcutta and Allahabad. In short, the capital objection to a World's Parliament of Religions is, that we must not openly acknowledge the existence of a state of things which we are forced privately to admit. That alien religions are not pure devil-worship, that there are pagan virtues which it would not hurt Christians to have a touch of, that the entire basis and method of missionary work have changed—this may all be true, but it is one of those truths which are so precious that they cannot be too carefully economized.

An ingenious French writer, M. Hamon, has taken a sort of census of anarchists, and has published his results, some of which are curious. A surgeon attributed his anarchistic principles to the fact that he had been flogged at school, which certainly makes against Dr. Johnson's contention that there is nothing like a sound caning to beat the humanities into a boy's head. "Rooted objection to authority" was what made an anarchist of a journalist, who had first, no doubt, through such rooted objection, become what the French call "un journaliste du pavé." One can better understand the case of an artist who had been driven to anarchy by "the arrogance of critics," and that of an author who had gone the same way as "an alternative to suicide." What one cannot understand at all, however, is the analysis of the anarchist nature which M. Hamon professes to make on the strength of the data he has collected. He works out eight specific characteristics of the anarchist mind, some of which are obvious enough, such as "a spirit of revolt," "love of self," or even "love of liberty." But it seems strange, indeed, to read that bomb-throwers are strongly moved by "love of others," that they have marked "tenderheartedness," a powerful "feeling of justice," and a keen "sense of logic." As a final note of the anarchist it is said that he has a "thirst for knowledge." This, it must be said, a great many anarchists are in a fair way of satisfying. Their rough contact with the world's logic and justice has left them wiser if sadder men.

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THE GOLD RESERVE.

THERE was taken out from this port on Saturday's European steamers $4,550,000 in gold. Including the shipments earlier in the week, the export movement since the previous Saturday amounted to $7,200,000. Most of this was withdrawn from the Treasury reserve, and it is not unnatural that the stock market and the financial community generally should have returned in some degree to the discouragement which prevailed at the periods of large gold shipments a year ago.

A new bond issue is talked of to replenish the Government's gold reserve. Whether any such thing is in contemplation by those in authority we do not know, but it seems to be the logic of the situation that the Treasury should begin to take care of itself instead of leaning longer on the syndicate that took the last lot of bonds. Under that contract the syndicate agreed to use its influence and its best endeavors to prevent the drawing of gold from the Treasury during the pendency of the contract. But the contract was fulfilled some time ago. All the gold that has been turned into the Treasury by it since that time has been over and above any agreement or promise, expressed or implied.

For this reason it is fitting that the Treasury should now stand on its own bottom. It ought to meet its responsibilities like an ordinary business corporation, which pays its debts with its own assets, and not to lean on individuals or subsist from day to day on benevolence. The spectacle of daily gold withdrawals followed by voluntary contributions from bankers is not at all reassuring. It is especially detrimental to our credit abroad, since no such thing ever happens there. No government except our own is engaged in the banking business. No other government attempts to maintain the gold reserve which commerce requires. In England, France, Germany, and all other commercial countries, such tasks are left to merchants and bankers. Being an essential part of commerce, the gold reserve adjusts itself automatically. It did so in our own country before fiat money made its appearance among us. When foreigners see us persistently violating the principles of sound finance long after the supposed necessity has passed away, they naturally distrust us and keep their money at home as much as possible.

While it is for these reasons fitting that the Government should take decisive steps to maintain its gold reserve with its own credit and resources, instead of leaning upon the benevolence and good will of banks and individuals, there are other considerations which make a new bond issue desirable, or at all events not undesirable. Nothing in our experience has yielded so much public enlightenment on financial subjects as the three bond issues that have taken place within eighteen months to replenish the gold reserve. Undoubtedly there was more than one cause for the drain of gold from the Treasury. There was the silver-purchase act of 1890, which crammed the circulation with fiat money that could not be digested; there was a deficit of ordinary receipts as compared with ordinary expenditures; and there was the panic of 1893 on top of these things and partly in consequence of them. Some of these things the public could understand and some they could not, but all could see the demand for gold and its outflow, and the steps taken to replenish it. All could see that the interest-bearing debt was increased more than a hundred and fifty million dollars in consequence, and nearly all could see that there was no way to avoid it.

The consequence was a large number of conversions to the idea that the Government must go out of the banking business with all convenient speed. How extensive this change of opinion has been we have some means of estimating by Mr. Cleveland's present popularity. It is safe to say that but for the national tradition against third terms he would be renominated and reelected next year. But for this obstacle there would be no candidate against him in the Democratic party, and the Republicans would be appalled and paralyzed by his presence in the field once more. Now this popularity of Mr. Cleveland is due to no one thing more than to his firmness and determination to preserve the national credit and the gold standard. As the laws now stand, these two terms are synonymous, and Mr. Cleveland is their personal embodiment before the people. This constitutes his tower of strength, and it furnishes a very fair measuring-rod to test the change of public opinion on the question of fiat money. Every bond put out by the Government to maintain the gold reserve is a fresh argument for retiring the legal-tender notes; and this circumstance reconciles us to a new issue, if it must come, although we would not justify it if the $100,000,000 reserve could be maintained without it.

A TRUMPET OF UNCERTAIN SOUND.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S speech at the Republican mass-meeting in Springfield, O., last week is hailed as the blowing of a bugle. This doubtless refers to his declaration about the tariff policy of his party. He said:

> "What we propose and intend is, to restore the protective policy of the Republican party, to collect enough revenue to pay current expenses, to reduce the national debt, and to build up and increase domestic manufactures and productions, not only of the workshop, but of the farm and mine. The McKinley law, with such changes as time may make necessary, will accomplish this purpose."

This is probably more of a bugle blast than any Republican of Mr. Sherman's standing has emitted. It comes nearer to meaning something. The usual thing has been to say that the Republican party still stands firm for the grand system of protection, for general prosperity, happiness, and virtue; details to be had only on private application. Senator Sherman, with a great show of positiveness and boldness, comes out for the restoration of the McKinley bill, "with such changes as time may make necessary." This innocent saving clause really turns the whole thing into mist, it is evident. The bold Senator was not so vague when he rose in the Senate on September 29, 1890, to say terrible things of the McKinley bill just before voting for it. He then frankly admitted that some of the rates in it were "too high." He plaintively recognized the truth that it was a bill dictated by the manufacturers and Trusts, and that this well-known fact was a "great obstacle and menace in the way of the success of this bill." With ridiculous fatuity he appealed to the beneficiaries of the bill to act "judiciously," and to "avoid those contracts" which had aroused "popular discontent," winding up with the awful threat, "If they do not, I, for one, will be as ready to repeal this law as I am now ready to vote for it."

As far as Senator Sherman is concerned, therefore, it is clear that time will make necessary many changes in the McKinley bill. He would no doubt swallow his principles as meekly as before if driven to it again; but if he could have his way, he would not let the party break its leg a second time on the McKinley stone of stumbling. What is incumbent upon him, however, and upon all Republican leaders who talk of going back to McKinleyism, with "changes," is to say what changes. The country is entitled to a bill of particulars. Is Senator Sherman in favor of restoring the McKinley favors to the Sugar Trust, the Lead Trust, the Cotton-bagging, Binding-twine, Plate-glass, Linseed-oil Trusts, and the rest of them? Never mind now about the Democrats having also jumped into the same mire up to their waists; are the Republicans prepared to plunge in again up to their necks? If a duty is to be put on wool again, how high is it to be? The Ohio wool-growers demand that all foreign wool be excluded. Does Senator Sherman, do the Ohio Republicans, agree to that? They do not say. Nobody knows, yet every business man is entitled to know.

Our point is, that the Republican party cannot conduct a second tariff campaign on a platform of ambiguities and false pretences. Such was their campaign of 1888. It is safe to say that President Harrison would never have been elected if the Republican voters had dreamed that his election involved the McKinley bill. What the Republican platforms had been talking about was the need of "correcting the irregularities of the tariff" and "reducing the surplus," "effecting all needed reduction of the national revenue" by a wise "revision of the tariff laws," and, above all, deadly hostility to "all combinations of capital organized in Trusts." No

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man could have inferred the McKinley abominations from such declarations. They did not mean or intend anything of the kind. When the Philadelphia Manufacturers' Club and the Ohio Wool-Growers and the Sugar Trust closed down on the luckless McKinley, and exacted from him the tariff which they unblushingly said they had "bought and paid for," no one was more surprised and disgusted than the mass of the Republican party itself. Thousands of Republican voters felt that they had been "buncoed"; and they had been.

Now, we say, such a thing ought not to happen again, cannot happen again. The Republican platform-makers this year and next, candidates for Congress next year, have got to put down in black and white, before the business and industry of this country, what they intend to do, if anything, about the tariff. The first question they must answer, and answer without shuffling or ambiguity, is the question whether a general revision of the tariff is to cast its paralysis over business again in 1897. Business men will insist upon knowing before voting; and their votes will depend, not upon party affiliations, but upon business reasons. Thousands of Republican business men are in the position of a large woollen-manufacturer who recently said: "I am and always have been a Republican, but if my party proposes to rip up the tariff again, I shall have seriously to consider how I shall vote." Similarly in the matter of separate and minor tariff changes. We do not believe any such can be made, but if the Republicans purpose making them, they must say how and when and what. Ambiguity, general mellifluous phrases, will not do. They will not even charm campaign contributions out of expectant beneficiaries; certainly they will win no votes, though they will repel many. Senator Sherman will have to try again. His trumpet gives too uncertain a sound to make even the Republicans prepare for battle; it will merely alarm the conservative business interests of the country. Their devout wish is to be let alone and allowed to work out their own salvation without interference from either Republicans or Democrats. Above all, they want nothing to do with a political leader or a political party that faces north by south on the tariff.

SOUTH CAROLINA'S PROBLEM.

South Carolina by the last census had a population of 1,151,149, of whom 462,008 were white and 688,934 black—as nearly as possible, 40 whites to every 60 blacks. Of males of the voting age there were 102,657 whites against 132,949 blacks; in other words, of the men who had reached the age of twenty-one there were in every hundred 43 whites and 57 blacks.

The Constitution of South Carolina, adopted under reconstruction rule in 1868, provides that every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old, "without distinction of race, color, or former condition," except those usually disfranchised everywhere as paupers, criminals, or lunatics, "shall be entitled to vote for all officers elected by the people, and upon all questions submitted to the electors at any election." It is obvious that, under this Constitution, if a race line should be drawn in politics, the party supported by the blacks would, with "a free vote and a fair count," beat the white party by about 30,000 majority.

The race line was drawn so strictly that scarcely any blacks voted the Democratic ticket, and but few whites (except carpet-baggers from the North) the Republican. As a result, the Republicans carried the State by large majorities for several years—33,534 for Governor in 1870, and 49,587 for President in 1872, when the Democrats were so demoralized by Greeley's candidacy that half of those who had voted for Seymour four years before would not go to the polls. Meanwhile, the carpet-baggers from the North, the native white "scalawags" who joined hands with them, and the majority of ignorant blacks were making the administration of public affairs a travesty upon democratic government by such a carnival of corruption and downright stealing as was never before seen in an American commonwealth.

The situation at last became intolerable. While the white adventurers insisted that there were some "years of good stealing" still left, the white minority felt in 1876 that they could not stand this sort of rule any longer. They resolved to get control of the State at all hazards. With the aid of intimidation they managed to secure the narrow majority of 1,134 for Wade Hampton running as the Democratic nominee for Governor, and although the Republicans tried to hold on to power by throwing out two counties on this ground, and thus giving Chamberlain the lead as a candidate for reëlection, the Hayes Administration withdrew the troops that were essential to the assertion of Republican claims, and the former masters ceased to be ruled by their former slaves.

Since then the Republicans have "stood no show" in South Carolina elections. The white Democrats frightened the negroes from trying to vote until most of them ceased to make any further effort, except in one Congressional district in which the blackest counties were lumped; and they put such obstacles in the way of the more persistent, through registration laws with which it was hard to comply, that few maintained what seemed a useless struggle—especially with the probability that they would be counted out if they really got their ballots in. For President in 1892 Harrison received only 13,384 votes, against 72,290 for Grant twenty years before; the Democratic vote, through the lack of any contest, being but 51,698—a total of only 65,082 for 235,606 males of the voting age, whereas Maryland, with a smaller population, cast 213,275 votes.

For years there has been among the better class of the whites a growing feeling of disgust at the methods of intimidation and fraud by which the black majority has been kept under, and a new constitution has been demanded under which the white minority might lawfully retain control. The Tillman element took up this cry, when they were fully established in power, hoping also to secure factional advantage by changes in the fundamental law. Their domination in the State disinclined many of the more intelligent whites to favor a convention which the more ignorant and reckless of their race would control, and the "Conservatives" aver that the proposition to hold one was really voted down at the polls last fall. However, the Tillmanites returned it as carried, delegates were chosen last month, and the body opened its sessions at Columbia on September 10.

The outlook for a wise solution of the problem is not encouraging. The Tillmanites constitute a large majority of the delegates, and the Tillmanite Governor was chosen President. Whether Tillmanites or Conservatives, the white delegates (there are only a very few blacks) are united in a resolution to secure "white supremacy" by any device that will not be declared in conflict with the United States Constitution. The purpose is openly proclaimed by the press. The object, says the Greenville *News*, is to "provide a system of elections which will give a white majority of from 20,000 to 40,000 without disfranchising anybody [anybody evidently here meaning any whites] and without requiring officers of elections to be experts in perjury, fraud, and cheating." The convention, says the Charleston *News and Courier*, "has been called to accomplish in a constitutional way the overthrow of negro suffrage"; and it adds:

> "Nobody tries to conceal it, nobody seeks to excuse it. It is not meant to disfranchise every negro in this State—there are some of them who are qualified by education and property to vote—but it is intended that every colored voter who can be disfranchised without violating the higher law of the United States Constitution shall be deprived of the right to vote. On the other hand, it is meant to disfranchise no white man except for crime if any way can be found to do it without violating the United States Constitution."

The problem which has long confronted South Carolina is a most difficult one—to secure good government in a State where three-fourths of the black voters and one-sixth of the white are illiterates. But the spirit in which this convention approaches it gives little hope of a correct solution.

WANTED—A GREAT POET.

That the English-speaking world is badly off for a great living poet, or at least one whom it can make a good face at accepting as great, is a fact for which there is a deal of painful evidence. The vacant Laureateship will not let some men rest.

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Only the other day in the House of Commons, Mr. Balfour, who is said to have a pretty taste in poetry, was asked when the next Laureate would be appointed. He replied, however, with a lamentable appearance of hurrying away from an unpleasant subject, that this was a matter entirely within the hands of the Prime Minister. At about this time, as the almanacs say, and as a coincidence which would be dear to the heart of an almanac-maker, Mr. (now Sir) Lewis Morris published an ode on Armenia in the *Daily News*. If the laurel was to decorate a living head again, the willing brows must not be hidden from the sight of those in authority. But the only result of this piece of timely poetry that we have thus far observed was the anxious inquiry of the *Saturday Review* as to who, even if Lord Salisbury succeeded in delivering the Armenians from their Turkish oppressors, was to deliver the public from Sir Lewis Morris.

This desire to have the Laureateship filled, even if ill filled, doubtless has many and complex motives back of it. One is, apparently, regret at the waste of so much good poetic material. Subjects for poems are not so easy to come at as some might think. If any one doubts it, let him look at the unpromising themes which many of our hardest-working poets are compelled to take up, and which, after they have got through with them, appear to have neither promise nor fulfilment about them. But water runs to the Laureate's mill without half trying; and it is harrowing to a true poetic sense to consider the number of official poems that might have been written since Tennyson's death, but which now must for ever remain uncomposed for lack of an official poet. There is the son born to the Duke of York, possible successor to the English crown: can any truly poetic mind contemplate that infant in his cradle, unwept, unhonored, and unsung, without mourning over a lost opportunity? Then there were the victories of the Prince of Wales's *Britannia* over *Navahoe* and *Vigilant*, several good purses set down to the credit of his stud, besides the extraordinary event of two Derbys won by a peer and a Prime Minister, upon all of which much lofty rhyme might have been built by a Laureate, had there been one. For an outsider to touch such inviting and inspiring subjects would look like pushing himself forward for the vacancy; and no one who remembers how shrinking and hermit-like all poets are by nature, would suppose it possible for any of them to think of such a thing.

It is said that the Laureateship should be filled as a state recognition of poetry. This is entirely irrespective of whether the poetry is good or the poet great. In fact, it is thought to be rather better not to have the Laureate too great a poet. He will serve a good purpose if he enables other poets to say, "How rich England is in poetic genius when such poets as we are *not* Laureates." Still, the general demand that a great poet stand forth is not abated by any such considerations, and has now, indeed, become so strong that many English critics are desperately thrusting greatness on various poets, whether they will or no. The *Spectator's* rather tiresome forcing of the bays upon Mr. William Watson is perhaps the most conspicuous instance. We have not a word to say against that meritorious writer; but to keep on insisting that he is another Wordsworth, if not another Milton, is very much like hailing the bramble as satisfactory king over all the trees.

Advertising for a great poet this side the Atlantic has not, perhaps, been so urgent, but there is no doubt that, in this country also, the man who could show the true strawberry mark of genius on his arm would hear of something to his advantage. Arms are bared in plenty and in public, but the marks are not fast colors. We have no poetical Laureateship, but we have a poetical "mantle." When Bryant dropped it, there was a palpable bending of receptive shoulders among some of the younger poets, but they straightened up when it was recalled that Longfellow still survived. When he passed away, Lowell's presence restrained them from stepping forward too confidently, but after he also was gone, and then Whittier and Holmes, they saw no reason for longer disguising their fitness to wear the mantle. But the public, which takes the place of the Prime Minister this side the water, has been as slow in bestowing the mantle as have Rosebery and Salisbury the laurel. Perhaps it dreads, like them, the making of both giver, gift, and recipient a little ridiculous.

No off-hand receipt can be given for making a great poet. The surest way to make a little poet is for a man to say to himself, "Go to, I will be a great poet"; or, still more fatally, "Go to, I will artfully make people think I am a great poet, whether I am or not." It may be safely said, however (Milton said it in unkind anticipation of his successors), that being a great man has something to do with being a great poet. A man must have lived and thought to some purpose—been great in mind if not in character and achievements—before he can write poetry, or prose either, that will affect the lives and thoughts of others to some purpose. Arthur Hugh Clough was as eager as any one for the coming of a great poet, but he knew perfectly well what he wanted him to come for, and with what equipment he must be provided when he did come. He must be prepared to tell the thousands of laborers what their tasks tended to, and at the same time tell trembling thinkers how to think. He must be able to portray in lasting lineaments the substance of the shadowy day—in fine:

> "Our real and inner deeds rehearse,
> And make our meaning clear in verse."

It takes something more than a genius for exclamation to do that. A great poet of that kind, when he comes, will come like the kingdom of heaven, without observation. Certainly he will not come sounding a trumpet before him. A part of his greatness will consist in not being at all anxious about greatness, in not knowing that he is great. Clough himself, without consciously striving for it or being conscious of it, was so near to being a poet of that kind that Lowell could say of him: "We have a foreboding that Clough, imperfect as he was in many respects, and dying before he had subdued his sensitive temperament to the sterner requirements of his art, will be thought a hundred years hence to have been the truest expression in verse of the moral and intellectual tendencies, the doubt and struggle towards settled convictions, of the period in which he lived." His example may be commended to the poets who, not having been born great or achieved greatness, are so manifestly willing to have greatness thrust upon them.

A LIBERAL'S VIEW OF THE GENERAL ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August, 1895.

EVER since the recent general election ended, the Liberal party has been trying hard to explain the causes of the unexpected defeat it suffered. It was not, however, so much the fact of defeat itself that took everybody by surprise as the magnitude of the catastrophe. The Liberal party had not counted on improving its position. Some thought that it might hold its own. Others looked for an equilibrium of parties. Those who had studied the constituencies reckoned on seeing a majority of from thirty to fifty against them. Nobody had the least idea that the majority would exceed sixty; and any one who had predicted that it would reach 152 would have been laughed to scorn. Nor were the party who proved victorious much better prepared for their victory. A few of them put their probable majority as high as seventy or eighty; none (it is believed) ventured to anticipate more than one hundred. Since the election which followed the reform bill of 1832 there has been no such "tidal wave" in English politics.

Now that the smoke of battle has cleared off the field, it is becoming pretty easy to criticise the tactics and assign the causes of the defeat. As usually happens in England, perhaps in all popularly governed countries, it was not so much the promises of the victorious party that influenced the electors as discontent with the party which was vanquished. Promises, indeed, were profusely made; for although the Tory leaders had the prudence to issue no "authorized programme" or "platform," the Tory candidates were less cautious, and indulged in all sorts of declarations as to the measures which their party would carry, and the blessed results in the way of employment for everybody and abounding prosperity which would follow. These allurements, however, do not appear to have told very greatly on English people, who are now getting accustomed to the devices of electioneering. It was rather on the measures to which the Liberal party stood pledged that the elections seem to have turned, than on any fondness for the

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Tories or any attractiveness in the Tory platform.

These measures, every one now admits, constituted too large and too ambitious a programme. Among them, however, that which, as most people think, injured the Liberals most was the Local Veto bill. There are few things for which the English workingman cares more than he does for his glass of beer. The bill went no further than to permit a two-thirds majority to prohibit, after three years' notice, the sale of intoxicants in a parish or ward of a town; but this was a detail which the popular eye overlooked, and it was supposed that, once the bill passed, the poor man would no longer be able to have his glass of beer, because all the public houses would be closed. The brewers and the publicans naturally encouraged this view of the measure, and worked like horses in every constituency for the Tory candidates. Moreover, the brewing business, which has of late years been extremely profitable in England, has largely passed into the hands of joint-stock companies, and the shareholders in these companies felt their pockets touched. Thus the drink question told mightily; and, though the teetotal party stood by the Liberals, it was heavily outnumbered. Probably some twenty or thirty seats, possibly many more, were fought and won mainly upon this issue.

Next in importance came the question of Disestablishment in Wales. It roused the clergy of the Established Church not in Wales only, but all over England also, as they had not been roused for many years. The English clergy sympathized with their Welsh brethren, and thought that they would themselves be the next to see their legal position and their endowments threatened. Many who, from their interest in the temperance cause, might otherwise have helped the Liberals, or at any rate remained neutral, were in this way drawn into the Tory ranks, and exerted no small influence on the result. In Wales itself the Liberal party lost six seats; and it is admitted that this loss constitutes a serious "set-back" to the Disestablishment movement, whose strength was largely drawn from the fact that Wales had returned in 1886 and in 1892 an increasing number of members pledged to that policy.

The Liberals had not expected to gain anything by their advocacy of home rule for Ireland, because in England, and perhaps even in Scotland, the electors were a little tired of that subject, having ceased, since Ireland had become comparatively quiet, to deem it urgent, and having become more or less provoked and repelled by the intestine feuds that have divided the Irish Nationalists ever since 1890, the year when Mr. Parnell was deposed from the leadership. The Tories on their side had expected benefit from pushing this question to the front, and descanted incessantly on one particular provision of the home-rule bill of 1893—that which allowed Irish members to vote in the House of Commons on questions affecting England only. But it does not appear that the home-rule issue had really any great influence. Men generally retained the opinions they had held at the election of 1892, and comparatively few who had voted for the Liberals then were led to vote against them now out of dislike to the particular scheme propounded in 1893. It must be remembered that, although the feeling against granting autonomy to Ireland is very strong in the richer sections of English society, it is comparatively feeble among the poorer. Thus the Tories drew less advantage from this quarter than they expected; their own rank and file being, indeed, somewhat indifferent to the whole matter.

Just as the Tories experienced a disappointment in this direction, so also were the Liberals disappointed by the attitude of the masses upon the subject of the House of Lords. They had counted on rousing the country against the upper chamber by dwelling on its hereditary and therefore irresponsible character, and by enumerating the many useful measures which it had in time past defeated or delayed. The country, however, did not respond. Those who were already attached to democratic principles went heartily into the fight, and probably cared more about this issue than about any other submitted to them. But the bulk of those comparatively indifferent or moderate men who, by throwing themselves into one or other scale, determine the result of an election, saw no great reason for touching the Lords. A hereditary chamber was no doubt an anomaly, but it was not (so they thought) doing them any particular harm, for it had not recently rejected any measure in which they, as Englishmen, felt directly and warmly interested. However, the Liberal leaders had not specifically declared what was to be done with the second chamber. Some were believed to desire merely to restrict its powers; others, to wish to turn it into an elective assembly; others, to abolish it altogether, and leave the House of Commons to stand alone. This third course, which was, of course, represented by Tory speakers as being that which the Liberals would, in fact, adopt, alarmed the more cautious persons who did not think the popular house so perfect a body as to require no sort of constitutional check. Thus it would seem that if the Liberals did not actually suffer from their onslaught upon the Lords, neither did they gain much by it.

Three other factors remain to be considered whose influence it is more difficult to estimate, because they were more vague than the four already mentioned, each of which was connected with a practical bill or proposal. The first of these three was the loss to the Liberal party of Mr. Gladstone's leadership. Although there was in its ranks a very general regard for and confidence in his successor, the departure of the chief who had inspired its efforts for thirty years, and been during all that time the most brilliant figure in English public life, with an experience, an eloquence, and a courage no one else could rival, naturally depressed their spirits. It takes some time before an army can learn to cheer the name of a new general as it cheered one who has often led them to victory. This was an unavoidable misfortune; for even had Mr. Gladstone remained in the Government which he formed in August, 1892, until it resigned in June, 1895, his advanced age would have made it impossible for him to do much fighting, and every one would have known that he could not again take office.

In the next place, there was a general discontent with the depression from which trade has been suffering for the last five years and agriculture for the last fifteen. This discontent, as usually happens, told against the government which had been recently in power, and disposed the voters to "give the other fellows a chance." In vain did the Liberals point out that trade had been bad under the Tories from 1890 till 1892, that it had been equally bad or worse in most other countries, that it had begun to revive last March, while their Ministry was still in power, and that ministries cannot make good trade any more than they can make good harvests. The sense of disquiet, the idea that a change of administrators might do good and at any rate could do no harm, was irresistible; and many elections were no doubt decided by this notion, against which it was all the harder to fight just because it was irrational. When there are no arguments to support a case, the case, though it may be absurd, becomes irrefutable.

Upon minor causes which acted in particular parts of the country, it is hardly worth while to dwell. Several seats in Lancashire were lost to the Liberals because the critical condition of the Indian revenue had obliged them to allow the Indian Government to impose an import duty on cotton goods. Several more were affected, perhaps lost, on the question of bimetallism, which has taken strong hold of Lancashire and some of the other manufacturing districts, although its advocates are far from commanding a majority in the new House of Commons. A more important factor, and the last of the three above referred to, was the impression, pretty widely felt, and influential with timid minds, that the Liberals were tinged by revolutionary or socialistic views. This impression was the more odd because the so-called Independent Labor party, which is avowedly socialistic, was, wherever it had an organization, attacking Liberal candidates, and denouncing them as being more "capitalistic" than the Tories; and actually running candidates of its own in order to keep the Liberals out. However, the fact that socialism was in the air and had frightened the property-holding classes, among whom a good many workingmen may now happily be included, told against the party which is traditionally the party of change, and made not a few of the more timid sort think property safer under the party which is traditionally that of conservatism, and to which the men of wealth, with very few exceptions, now belong.

Lest it should be supposed that the enormous majority which the Tories have obtained in the House of Commons denotes a pulverization of the Liberal party, let it be observed that the majority of popular votes obtained by the Tories in the constituencies is only between one and two hundred thousand (it is hard to make an exact calculation, because many seats, especially Tory seats, were uncontested)—that is to say, a small percentage of an electorate which exceeds six millions. This is a curious result of the British electoral system, and shows that the swing of the pendulum, which seems so tremendous if one regards Parliament, is comparatively small among the voters. It shows, also, that when the pendulum takes a swing back, the change among the voters need not be very great in order to restore the now defeated party to power. For the present, however, the Tories may count themselves safe. Their majority is inconveniently large, but, if they keep it solid, they may retain office unshaken for six years to come. ⊙.

HOLLAND IN 1895 AND THE DUTCH UNIVERSITIES.

ROTTERDAM, August 27, 1895.

IN a certain sense the Dutch of to-day suffer in comparison with their glorious past. One who studies the faces on the canvases of Rembrandt and Franz Hals and then looks upon contemporaneous Netherlanders is struck with the difference. The heroic pride and joy of life noticeable in the former have given way to

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simple content or anxious desire for gain. Familiarity with figures of arithmetic rather than of rhetoric characterizes the Dutchman of to-day. The average face in the land of dykes and guilders is much like that in the country of pounds, shillings, and pence. It is distinctly commercial. The Englishman apparently notices this even more than the American, and the "modern instances" of the British pot calling the Dutch kettle black are numerous and amusing.

Even the Hollanders themselves declare that there has been a decline in national spirit since the day of the Silent and Maurice. The pessimists who bewail these and recent degenerate days are of two sorts. The ultra-Calvinists, of whom there is yet a vast number in Netherland, point to the past with reverence because of its purer orthodoxy. They declare that the triumphs of their fathers in art, poetry, law, science, and military success were direct fruits of faith. Declension in doctrine has been followed by decay of national prestige. A powerful party in political and ecclesiastical life still shout the battle-cries of the Synod of Dort. Barneveldt will never have a statue if they can help it. Nevertheless, his name is on the new streets of the Dutch cities. Another class, usually the learned men in the universities and professions, declare that the Dutch have lost nerve. The old spirit of enterprise which led their ancestors, even while fighting giant Spain, to fill the earth with explorers and cover the once unknown lands and seas with Dutch names (which the English, with characteristic impudence, say they, have erased or supplanted) is no more. Not only have the qualities even of the very cheese and butter declined, but the merchant will not risk his ships or the capitalist his guilders unless positively sure of his five per cent. returns.

A different note is sounded by others of perhaps wider view, notably by men in the commercial marine and by the Rotterdammers. Nations, say these men, whose glasses possess a rosier tint, have their dark and bright days, their ebb and flow. Nederland, they argue, is awakening from her night slumbers. The tide is rising and a new day of prosperity is being ushered in. Look! they cry, we are out of the entanglement of European politics. We are without enemies, and need make none. From Germany there is no danger whatever. France and England are both friendly. Our colonial possessions are outside of the sphere of the ambitions of the great Powers that are busy, jealous, and rapacious in Asia and Africa. We have shown how well we can colonize and govern our subject thirty millions. Our army and navy and fixed defences are in first-class order. We are able in any emergency to protect our borders and enforce neutrality. Our schools are the admiration of Europe. Our art is living. In fisheries, trade, agriculture, we are steadily advancing. Manufactures are increasing in value and extent of sale. Rotterdam will soon be one of the greatest seaports in all Europe. The Hague and Amsterdam are prospering. While the number of new houses and people in the chief cities multiplies, the country districts hold their own. Who will say that the Dutch nation is not even now having a renaissance?

How far the boast of "Young Holland" is soundly based, the foreigner cannot certainly say, even after seeing and talking with men in the eleven provinces. It is certainly more easy to believe in the asserted renaissance while in The Hague or in Rotterdam than when, for example, in the heath-land of Drenthe or in the province of Limburg. The general air of the kingdom is that of contentment and prosperity. Everything is well kept up, neat and bright. Some of the cities which are "dead" in rhetoric and book-titles seem remarkably lively. The writer, from the point of view of the tourist, enjoyed the distant provinces of Friesland, Groningen, Zeeland, and Limburg quite as much as the two Hollands.

Probably the ground midway between the pessimistic scholar in the cloister and the enthusiastic skippers who share the Rotterdam enthusiasm, is that which is paved with truth. My own impression of the Dutch is that they are safely set in precedent and grooves and will not soon or startlingly change. Under the pressure of national danger they will, I think, be found ready, and will probably repeat their history. If anything seems clear from recent critical investigation, it is that the people of Holland led William the Silent more than he led them. These quiet men who think are not likely to quail before the bullying of the great soldier camps around them. The recent events of Lombok and East Indies, when read in their true light, argue nothing against Dutch valor or tenacity. They rather answer grandly to the traditions of the eighty-years' war. Yet the mynheers do not love strife. There is nothing of the style or aristocratic swagger in the Dutch "militaire," such as one sees so much of in Berlin, for example. All extra show, fuss, and pomp is sedulously avoided. The studied restraint, quiet dignity, and modest decorations of the recent "feest" in The Hague, when the little Queen, Wilhelmina, with her own hands, pinned on the medals to the bosoms of the warriors of Lombok, was singularly like a family party. No theatrical heralding abroad of the impressive ceremony was even thought of. Strong and bronzed heroes who had faced the deadly Malay krisses and rifle-fire of the jungles broke down and showed wet faces as the royal child's dainty fingers laid a nation's award over their hearts. None more than intelligent Hollanders are opposed to the idea of standing armies. Yet the awful experiences of the past show the unwisdom of being unready. Vigilance and defence are necessary, with such powerful neighbors all around. In the East Indies, despite the occasional outbreak of a tribe, the peaceful and successful government of thirty millions of subtropical people of varied nations and languages is a triumph of statesmanship.

In the Netherlands of 1895, then, we note quiet in politics. All executive power is removed from the royal family, and the government is that of a republic in disguise, with a pretty figurehead. With enough "socialism" in the nation and sufficient friction between the Liberals and the Conservatives (within which latter party the Roman Catholics and ultra-Calvinistics join hands to keep up a state-subsidized religion and education) to prevent stagnation, most of the business of the States-Particular and the States-General is that of routine. A steady multiplication of the comforts of life and a broadening of the franchise result. In education the Dutch are not behind any nation in Europe, though the danger is that German ideas and methods may be too closely followed. With her colonies and affiliated nations in South Africa, Holland needs, I think, to lean rather to the more practical training of the English and American schools.

In enterprise the old passion of the race for overcoming difficulties is still manifest. It seems to have been fully determined to drain the Zuyder Zee and create a new province. To accomplish this stupendous undertaking, a generation of human life in point of time, besides an expenditure of at least sixty millions of dollars, will be necessary. In reality the work to be accomplished amounts to this—to lift off the surplus of water that engulfed and hid the old Lake Flavo, which existed before the thirteenth century, and to provide drainage for the rivers debouching into the now-existing Zuyder Zee. In a word, the Netherlanders want not only to get back the "drowned" lands, but to let the old water-courses and reservoirs of their mediæval history remain practically as they were of old. The project once carried out will, curiously enough, change a half-dozen "dead cities" from seaports to inland municipalities. In all probability it will call to thriving resurrection some of those which Havard baptized as "dead," while others that now have deep water will shrivel up into villages or mere cheese-markets. Of the fertility of the recovered ground there can be no question. As a rule, the fishermen and coasting skippers oppose the plan of desiccation. The archæologists, engineers, merchants, and manufacturers heartily approve of it.

Among the learned there are no signs of somnolence. University life is active and interesting. The modern Dutch make books rather than literature. Erudition rather than creative power is their characteristic. We must not, however, forget their geographical limitations. Less than five millions of people live within thirteen thousand square miles. In the fields of modern science, theology, linguistics, and comparative religion the scholars are busy. The annual harvest of books in quantity and quality bears a ratio in comparison with France, England, or Germany that is highly creditable to the Dutchmen. These, though they can, and often do, write in languages more widely spoken than theirs, prefer their own rich, clear, and strong tongue.

I have recently visited the four great universities, besides the seats and relics of those defunct. Franeker ought to receive more attention from Americans, for here in this ultra-democratic stronghold (suppressed by Napoleon in 1811) the students and faculty were, during our own Revolution, extraordinarily active and efficient in securing the ultimate recognition, by the States-General, of the United States. Here, also, in earlier days lived some of the Pilgrim sons—both those who did and who did not become fathers of Massachusetts. One still sees (in the Town Hall) among the clustered portraits of the former professors, the mild, strong face of Dr. Ames, who, after making the first American hymn-book, started for Plymouth, only to die of a cold from flood at Rotterdam. Franeker powerfully influenced Friesland and Holland, but of Gelderland's university at Harderwijk (1648-1811) there is little trace, either in the quiet town or in Dutch annals. Founded in patriotic impulse and conviction, and with a desire to give their Protestant faith the strongest intellectual basis and safeguards, the Dutch universities are still the nurseries of patriotism. Groningen's is a memorial of Prince Maurice's deliverance of the province from the Spaniards. Its faculty of twenty-five professors and eight hundred students contains able men whose names and books are well known where English is read. Amsterdam University is renowned for its medical school, which takes precedence in the number of its students and the eminence of its professors. The centralizing of the theological influences at Utrecht leaves Professor de la Saussaye of Amsterdam, who holds the chair of the history and philosophy of religion, nearly alone in the theological faculty. Ever since the seventh century, Utrecht continues as of

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old to be the religious capital of Netherland. Just now, when the turn of the tide leaves "liberalism" and "rationalism" high and dry, and when, on the other shore, "orthodoxy" is rising to flood, Utrecht is blooming like a garden of tulips. Since my visit in 1892, I note that the handsome new edifice, built in the most attractive style of modern Dutch architecture, is completed.

Every American who visits the venerable city should enter the ancient room in which the delegates from the seven provinces met, in 1579, to form the United States of the Netherland. Their union was under the tricolor revolutionary flag of orange, white, and blue, and with a written constitution which for 218 years, until the republic was overrun by the French, continued their bond of union. In the Senate room, hung with portraits of the scholars who have influenced the thought of England and America, as well as of Holland, I sat during the examination of a student for his degree of doctor of law. The young man was, on his mother's side, no other than a lineal descendant of Prof. Luzac of Leyden, to whom Washington wrote a letter of grateful acknowledgment for his part in securing recognition of the American by the Dutch Republic. Luzac was also the friend of John Adams. In this student's family, his father being the burgomaster of Nieuwersluis (which is the town next to Breukelen, the original of Brooklyn), is still preserved Washington's camp-stool sent from Mount Vernon as a present and souvenir to Luzac.

While Utrecht boasts its theology and rejoices in the revival of "orthodoxy" as led by the Queen and Court—much to the disgust of the "Modernen"—and expects over two hundred young theological students this autumn, Leyden is still eminent in law and the "secular" sciences. I missed, by a day, the grand costume procession which, by brilliant dresses, personification, and pageants, even to the negro page, commemorated the three hundred and fifth anniversary of the victorious entrance of Prince Maurice into Bergen-op-Zoom. I saw, however, the ancient city swathed in red, white, and blue. It was gay with flowers and guarded at every shop and uncurtained saloon (there are no *cafés chantants* in Leyden) with the image of Minerva. Everywhere the five arrows and the five small flags, each by its color significant of the sciences cultivated, were joined in harmony. Theology at Leyden, however, is represented only by a professor, successor of Kuenen, who lectures on the history and philosophy of religion.

A fourth tour in the eleven provinces of the land of water-tight compartments, renewed visits with professors in the four universities, examinations of some of the old and three of the entirely new, handsome, and fire-proof archive-buildings in the large cities, and chats with the men of heath and wold, as well as with some of the deck and the town, confirm many good impressions of the Dutch. Their past at least is secure. Their history and their country deserve more attention from Americans. Neither in the Empire State which they founded, nor in any American university, is there as yet one professorship of their language, literature, or history. W. E. G.

ACROSS SIBERIA.—II.

Tomsk, August 3, 1895.

A Siberian city is much like one elsewhere. Omsk, the capital of the three steppe governments of Akmollinsk, Semipalatinsk, and Semiretchinsk, is a place of some fifty to sixty thousand inhabitants, situated at the junction of the Irtysh and the little river Om. A fort was built there in 1716, and for long the town was a centre for the subjection of the neighboring Kirghiz. It also had at one time a flourishing trade in hides and tallow brought down from central Asia by Bokhariot merchants and sold into Russia. The construction of the Trans-Caspian naturally put an end to this, and Omsk has languished till the railroad, which was opened thus far last year, has given it new animation. The city is not over-attractive in itself, yet not distinctly otherwise, for if it has no fine buildings or picturesque streets or large trees, it stands on one of the few hills thereabout, and the view of the Irtysh is rather impressive, especially towards evening. Besides its Russian population, there are large numbers of Kirghiz who come in from the surrounding country, and also a good many Jews, who seem to be plentiful in Siberia, in spite of the law which, I believe, forbids their being here. Omsk has, too, a Polish colony of some two thousand souls—exiles and the children of exiles transported after the insurrection of 1863 and now among the prominent inhabitants. The latest civilization is represented by telephones and bicycles.

The Trans-Siberian, as at present open to traffic, ends at the Irtysh. Many miles of further tracks have been laid in different parts of Asia, but a through connection cannot be established until the great railway bridges have been completed. The one over the Irtysh, about 720 metres long, will hardly be finished before next year, though the Omsk station, on the eastern side of the river, is now nearly built. Starting from here with two Russian engineers on their way to survey the route around Lake Baikal, I had a ride of 291 versts (about 175 miles) over an unballasted and badly laid track. Our train, which was a working one, loaded with ties, rails, etc., made slow enough progress, stopping sometimes for hours and then jogging along for many miles without a curve in the line through a country almost uninhabited. It was like what we had been through earlier—prairie with patches of woods, good soil, and evidently great possibilities of development. At the site of each future station we found workmen busy building brick water towers (before Omsk they were of granite) and good-looking wooden houses for the employees. These are the first requisites; next will come the stations themselves, and around many if not all of them towns or villages will grow up in course of time. At present, to find habitations, one must come by the post road, sixty versts longer than the railway, from which it is at times far distant, not meeting it again till at the town of Kainsk. There, as we could get no further by rail, we had to take to the road ourselves for nearly four hundred miles, in order to reach Tomsk, from which this letter is written.

The process of being jolted about in springless vehicles is decidedly fatiguing to a novice; all the more so as, less fortunate than my comrades (who had their own tarantass, or great carriage, and needed but to change horses at the stopping-places every fifteen miles or so apart), just as I began to get used to each conveyance, I had to vacate it and trust to luck for its successor, which on several occasions was a telega, or low open cart. The dust was fearful at times, the mud likewise, but it is hard to see how this can be avoided, while the road was in better condition than I had expected and than many a one in America. When it was too bad in any particular place, we kept to one side of it—a process which can be repeated indefinitely in a level region without stones, fences, or cultivation. The heat, the flies and mosquitoes, and the other amenities of posting in the summer through thinly settled lands, though trying enough, were not unendurable, and were only what one must be prepared for if one will go on such expeditions.

The character of the country long continued the same, and each village resembled equally its successor and its predecessor. Each consists of a straight, treeless street, broad and rather well kept, though the resort of calves, pigs, dogs, hens, tow-headed children, etc., etc. On the sides are weather-stained log-houses, a story and half-a-cellar high, with sheds and gates between them and courtyards behind. The roofs are of turf or boards, the sills and shutters of the little windows are painted white, as is, too, the village church with its light-green spire and dome. A sign or two show the presence of shops or saloons, and the striped post before a house, perhaps a little larger than its neighbors, indicates the posting-station, where horses are hired and carriages changed, and where the traveller can usually find black bread, eggs, and other such refreshment. He can also pass the night in a very decent room, but will not find beds or bedding; the only thing which he has a right to require being a samovar for his tea. The horses that one gets are sorry-looking creatures, but most satisfactory; the coachman is occasionally drunk, which does not seem to interfere much with his good driving. There is apt to be difficulty about obtaining fresh horses at once, and a foreigner alone would find it hard to meet the attempts at extortion; so the assistance of a Russian friend, especially one of sufficient official position to be able to take a high tone, is invaluable. Between the stations one sees few people. One comes across odd peasants of the neighborhood, an occasional traveller, and now and then one or more wagons, each pulled by a single horse, and containing the women, children, and household goods of a family, while the men trudge beside. The progress of these emigrants, however slow, is not expensive, and they often wander great distances in search of new and better homes. When, instead of one village street, we find several, three or four churches, a brick post-office, a few painted houses of some pretensions, and shops with goods in the windows, we have a town such as Kainsk or Kolyvan, with their two or three thousand inhabitants and the residences of chiefs of police, who have to watch over large districts. Still we have not yet come to great luxury; for instance, at the latter place, on sending to the home of the priest to see if his wife would sell us some butter, we discovered that she had not heard of the article—yet milk was everywhere plentiful and delicious.

Some forty miles after leaving Kainsk, the high road crosses the line of the railway, but here the track had ceased, and even the embanking was not yet completed. A few miles later, however, we found rails again which seemed to continue unbroken to the Ob, and, indeed, are laid for some distance on the further side. The river is a bad interruption, as the great bridge over it, which we did not see, and which has been building for two years, will not shortly be finished. Thus, though the part of the railway between the Irtysh and the Ob is so nearly ready that it can soon be thrown open to the public, it is cut off at each end by an unbridged stream, frozen for many

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months of the year, while the local traffic would hardly require a train a week. The Trans-Siberian is first and foremost a great through route, hardly going out of its course for anything. It even leaves the important city of Tomsk fifty miles away, to be connected with it by a branch line.

Near Kolyvan, where we came to the Ob and turned to the northward, the nature of the country changed. The rest of our journey was hilly and amid birch woods with here and there a pine tree. The village street was *no longer straight, and turf roofs disappeared*, owing, presumably, to the abundance of wood. We crossed the Ob on a curious paddle-boat worked by two horses, then posted hard for twenty-four hours more. During our last night it looked so much at one time as if we were going to be attacked by robbers that two of our party held their revolvers ready to fire at any instant, but I slept peacefully through this experience. The morning of the next day brought us to the river Tom, and a little later to Tomsk, the goal of our efforts for the past week. ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

SONYA KOVALEVSKY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me, as a personal friend of Mrs. Kovalevskaya and a mathematician, to add a few words to what has already appeared on that distinguished lady in your paper and elsewhere.

It has been stated that she exacted of all who came near her that they should merge their personality in hers. I do not think this statement is true in all cases, as I know from my own experience. We disagreed on many subjects, but, when we separated, each one remained true to his original ideas. For instance, in politics Mrs. Kovalevskaya was a socialist, while I disapproved of violence of any kind, whether it came from the Government or from a revolutionary party. Mrs. Kovalevskaya contended that the manual work necessary for the subsistence of mankind should be divided equally among all, and according to her calculation two hours for each one would be sufficient. I thought, on the contrary, that intellectual work from those capable of it should be accepted as compensation for manual labor —a thing which she never granted. Another point of divergence was this: Being both scientists, we knew that science had to be studied for its own sake and not for the sake of its usefulness to humanity, but I held also the same idea with regard to morals, and thought that personal holiness was worth cultivating even without reference to its benefit to mankind in general. It is very clear that, from my point of view, love too was worth cultivating for its own sake, and to illustrate the subject I translated to her a highly finished Portuguese novel by Julio Diniz with a very happy dénouement—of an heiress marrying a schoolmaster after the usual trials. Mrs. Kovalevskaya disapproved of the novel, and even the fact that the two young people founded a school did not seem to her sufficient to grant them their right to enjoy their happiness, which she considered selfish.

I honestly believe that Mrs. Kovalevskaya's idea of love as given in her biographies must be of a later date than the epoch I am speaking of. At that time each one of us stuck to his own opinion. Generally speaking, I think I was the one who chose the books we read together. The only case I can remember of her attempting to induce me to act contrary to my own ideas was this: We had been reading at her boarding-house at Saint-Mandé till a very late hour, and, as the cars had ceased running, I was obliged to return on foot to my apartment in Avenue d'Essling. As usually happens on the outskirts of large cities, stories were current of murders committed there, so that Mrs. Kovalevskaya wanted me to take with me a crooked Eastern poniard which she had received as a present. Now, although I had been instructed in the use of all kinds of weapons from my childhood, and had won a prize for revolver-shooting at Versailles, the idea was gradually dawning upon me that all these weapons were simply nice toys and were not made to injure human beings with, so that I positively refused to take the poniard. That occasioned some discussion, but finally I carried my point and went without it. Of course nothing happened on my way back to Paris.

Mrs. Kovalevskaya resumed her residence in Paris soon afterwards, while I, after some stay there, went back to Brittany and returned to the capital only when she was wavering between life and death after the suicide of Mr. Kovalevskiy. Aniuta's husband, who had called on her, had been received in such a manner that he had no desire to call again. She seemed to have lost all interest in life, and even the appeal to the fact that her daughter needed her could not bring her to herself because she did not think that maternal love *alone* could fill her life. It was only when calling on her some time afterwards, and finding on her table sheets covered with theta functions, that I saw the battle was won, and that she needed my help no more. I returned to Brittany never to see her again. T.

SEPTEMBER 10, 1895.

A SUGGESTED MODIFICATION OF THE A. B. COURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The subject of the college curriculum has been so freely discussed of late years that it would seem that little more remained to be said, and yet certain developments in medical teaching make it desirable that the academic course be altered in some important particulars. Last spring the Association of American Medical Colleges, which comprises some seventy-odd medical colleges, decided to extend the time of study from three to four years. It seemed best to make this time requirement absolute, since, if this were not so, the evasion of the law would be an easy matter. Students are, however, given credit for medical studies taken at other colleges. Now the better class of men take, if possible, a year in a hospital after graduation, which makes five years of professional study; and if to this we add the four years of academic work, it brings up the total to nine years. Then, in the great majority of cases, the first two or three years of practice are mainly years of waiting, so that the doctor is well over thirty before he gets actually to work. Fifty years ago, or less, a man began the practice of medicine before he was twenty-one, or at least as soon as he had reached this age: this, of course, was too soon. Now he enters into actual practice rather too late.

A remedial measure would be to include in the A.B. course of our colleges the equivalent of the first-year medical work. This is done in a few of our universities, notably Johns Hopkins. This course should be elective and intended mainly for students who are preparing themselves for scientific work. It would be easy to make the course in zoölogy which is given in most colleges a little more comprehensive. More stress could be laid on human and comparative anatomy and physiology, with laboratory work in histology. Chemistry already forms a part of the regular curriculum, and the lectures on botany could be given a medical turn. Thus the student would take his A.B. degree and also be prepared to enter the second year of a medical school. The fact that the new medical law requires entrance examinations encourages men to take the academic course before entering upon the study of medicine. The college curriculum could in this way be made more attractive without necessitating any great addition to the teaching force, and at the same time save a year to the student who intends to study medicine.

GEORGE J. PRESTON.

BALTIMORE, MD.

FEMALE SUFFRAGE IN NEW YORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In vol. xix. of the *Nation*, p. 299 (November 5, 1874), a statement was made by Mr. F. M. Holland that at that time female suffrage in New York, while only *doubling* the entire number of possible voters, would nearly treble the number of illiterate voters, because of the larger percentage of illiteracy *then* among women. I am very anxious to know whether the census of 1890 would show the same condition of things; and I should be glad if some one of your readers could answer this question.

Will you find place in your paper for this query, and ask that the answers may be sent to Yours very truly,

WM. CROSWELL DOANE.

ALBANY, N. Y., September 11, 1895.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO.'S fall list embraces 'Hill Caves of Yucatan,' by Henry C. Mercer; 'The Land of the Muskeg,' *i. e.*, the domain of the Hudson Bay Company, by H. Somers Somerset; 'A Holiday in Spain and Norway,' by Caroline Earle White; 'Advance Japan,' by J. Morris; 'A Literary Pilgrimage among the Haunts of Famous British Authors,' by Theodore F. Wolfe, M. D., and 'Literary Shrines: The Haunts of Some Famous American Authors,' by the same writer; 'The Complete Works of Charles Lamb,' in six volumes, edited by Percy Fitzgerald; 'Hans Breitmann in Germany,' by Charles Godfrey Leland; 'Bismarck's Table-Talk,' edited by Charles Lowe; 'Napoleon's Last Voyages,' being the Ussher and Glover Diaries on board the *Undaunted* and the *Northumberland*; 'From Manassas to Appomattox,' memoirs of Gen. James Longstreet, C. S. A.—a subscription work; 'Turning on the Light: A Dispassionate Survey of Buchanan's Administration,' by Horatio King, ex-Postmaster-General; 'The Great Astronomers,' by Sir Robert Ball; 'Agriculture,' a general statement of principles, by R. Hedger Wallace; and a revised edition of 'Lippincott's Gazetteer of the World.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons further announce 'Charles XII. and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire, 1682-1719,' by R. Nesbit Bain; 'Wanderings, Literary and Historical,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'Impressions and Memories,' by J. Ashcroft Noble; 'Poets' Dogs,' poems selected

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and arranged by Elizabeth Richardson; 'A History of Money and Prices,' from the thirteenth century to the present day, by J. Schoenhof; 'Principles and Practice of Finance,' by Edward Carroll, jr.; and 'Congressional Currency,' by Armistead C. Gordon.

Way & Williams, Chicago, promise: 'Volunteer Grain,' poems by Francis F. Browne, editor of the *Dial*; 'Little Leaders,' essays from the *Dial* by Wm. Morton Payne; 'Queen Helen, and Other Poems,' by John Vance Cheney, librarian of the Newberry Library; 'Russian Fairy Tales,' translated by R. Nesbit Bain, and illustrated by C. M. Gere; 'Paul and Virginia of a Northern Zone,' from the Danish of Holger Drachmann; and Shelley's version of Plato's 'Banquet.'

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, will issue 'The Primary Factors of Organic Evolution,' by Prof. E. D. Cope; 'Post-Darwinian Questions,' by the late George J. Romanes; and 'The Prophets of Israel,' by Prof. C. H. Cornill.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Recollections of Abraham Lincoln, 1847-'65,' by Ward H. Lamon.

From Copeland & Day, Boston, we are to have 'Lyrics of Earth,' by Archibald Lampman; 'The Hills of Song,' by Clinton Scollard; and 'Lovers, Saint Ruth's, and Three Other Tales,' by Louise Imogen Guiney, being her first effort in fiction.

A new version of 'Don Quixote,' by George Santayana of Harvard University, is in the press of D. B. Updike, Boston. It will be issued, in four thin folio volumes printed on hand-made paper, and there will be twelve full-page illustrations.

A translation of Prof. Schmoller's essay on 'The Mercantile System' will be brought out by Macmillan & Co., in their series of "Economic Classics."

It is pleasant to record a sufficient demand for the less read and less available writings of Walter Bagehot to warrant a new edition of them. This the Longmans now bring out in five volumes, three of Literary Studies and one each of Biographical Studies and Economic Studies. The editor, Mr. R. H. Hutton, acknowledges special indebtedness to the carefully annotated edition of Bagehot published by the Travellers' Insurance Company of Hartford six years ago. He could not well do less, as the labors of Mr. Forrest Morgan and his assistants on that edition were of the greatest value, indispenable to any student of Bagehot, above all to any editor of his. Most of Mr. Morgan's emendations are accepted by Mr. Hutton, though he uses his own judgment, and it appears to us to be good judgment in the cases where we have made comparisons, in preferring the old text in some instances where the American editor's corrections seem to miss the point or to smack too much of schoolmasterlike exactitude. The critical apparatus of the Travellers' Bagehot, so often necessary to check that writer's careless shots at quotation or epitome, is wanting in this reprint, as is also the exhaustive personal and topical index; but on the other hand, the Longmans' edition is of more convenient size, both of page and volume, while supplying good type and paper, with unpretentious binding. Of Bagehot himself, his vitality, his acuteness, his pungent style, it is late in the day to need to say anything.

The Historical Printing Club of Brooklyn has done well to reprint from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* the catalogue of 'British Officers Serving in America, 1754-1774,' laboriously compiled from the British "Army Lists" by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. The arrangement is alphabetical, and in most cases the rise in rank of each officer is clearly shown; but Mr. Ford has been very cautious about confounding officers bearing the same name, and has preferred rather to duplicate. The catalogue, which is printed on one side of the leaf only (there are 108 leaves), is preceded by a list of regiments employed in America during the period in question.

An interesting monograph on "Benjamin Franklin as an Economist," by W. A. Wetzel, appears in the Johns Hopkins University Series of Historical Studies. Franklin was constantly busy with his pen, but it was not his calling to compose scientific treatises. What he wrote was called out by the requirements of the day, and must be looked for in many periodicals published here and abroad. Yet his mind was so acute and his good sense so marked, that much of what he said is of permanent value. Moreover, his style was so forcible and so persuasive that his statements of economic truths are frequently not to be improved. Like Adam Smith, he was much influenced by the Physiocrats, and he came in contact with both Smith and Hume. Mr. Wetzel gives a list of Franklin's principal theses, among which we find several that have not been accepted with piety in Pennsylvania. Thus, he maintained that high wages were not inconsistent with a large foreign trade, that free trade with the world will give the greatest revenue at the least expense, and that manufactures will naturally spring up in a country as the country becomes ripe for them.

In the August *Portfolio* (Macmillan) Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady) takes up the career of Raphael where she left it in a previous issue, and in 'Raphael in Rome' gives an account of the short blossoming-time and rapid decline of that marvellous genius, who, in his thirty-eight years of life, summed up the Renaissance, and, passing from the naïveté of a primitive to the full maturity of accomplished art, died the forerunner of the decadence and the exemplar of academic classicism. Raphael's frescoes in the Stanza della Segnatura were completed near the end of 1511, and Michelangelo's ceiling of the Sistine in October, 1512. That short year marks the culmination of the Renaissance, and from that time the school of Raphael stiffens into icy conventionalities, while that of Michelangelo swells into the writhing pompousness of the baroque. The school of form was dead, and nothing was left for art but to turn to the study of color and light with the Venetians and Correggio. The *Portfolio's* illustrations, which are excellent as usual, are largely devoted to these early frescoes, the most perfect decorations ever produced, in which the academic itself yet bears about it the charm of youth and the freshness of a new discovery, and to those hard and dry, but intensely vivid, portraits which must have been a great relief to the artist from his vast schemes of decoration, and which show him to us in such a new light. Perhaps the very best of these is that gravely quiet head of Balthasar Castiglione which, though it is one of the treasures of the Louvre, is less well known than it should be.

An article by Dr. Mills of Oxford, on Zoroaster and the Bible, which appeared in the *Nineteenth Century Review* of January, 1894, has been translated into Gujrati by N. Coorlawalla, a graduate of the Sir Jemshedji Zend College of Bombay, with the express permission of the editor of the magazine and of Dr. Mills. It has been published by the Trustees of the Sir J. Jejeebhoy Translation Fund of Bombay, and this fact is a guarantee that the work enlists the approval of all parties among the Parsees, who form such an important part of the population of that city.

A correspondent writes to us from Maine: "Observing the care of the *Nation* to protect ancient names of places, I ask your aid to save the name Deer *Isle* from extinction, now threatened by the general employment of the erroneous words 'Deer Island' in references to the crew of the *Defender*. Coast Chart No. 104 gives the true name, Deer Isle; so, also, Hosmer's history of the 'Town of Deer Isle' (Boston: Stanley & Usher, 1886)."

From Philadelphia we receive the following: "In your issue of September 12, 1895, page 183, your correspondent 'W. H. D.' refers to the 'magazine writers who lately went to the Bay of Fundy and vainly searched for the bore.' I beg to say that on the 20th of August, 1895, I not only searched for, but found, the bore at Moncton, N. B. The bore was from three to four feet high, and the noise of its approach exactly resembled that of a railroad train on a bridge."

—If ever a man displayed his character in his writings, Thomas Jefferson was that man. It is with keen pleasure that we note the sixth issue of the "Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State," containing a calendar of the letters from Jefferson in the Jefferson Papers purchased by the Government in 1848. It is a truly noble collection, the mere enumeration of which requires a bulletin of 541 pages; and yet the purchase was intended to obtain only papers of a public nature. Fortunately this description was interpreted liberally, and what was obtained constitutes an invaluable personal and political record of a man whose motives and influence are still matters of controversy. It is known that Jefferson destroyed some of his correspondence; but the wonder is that he did not destroy more for his own reputation for consistency. The partisan "Anas," and many of his confidential outpourings to Madison and Monroe, are very trying to those who would believe that the man was great. As historical material, these criticisms of men and policy are of high interest, carried as they often are to the verge of madness; but as personal records they show too plainly the intense and at times shifty feelings of one who would sacrifice all to attain an end, even when that end was very indefinite in his own mind. If Congress will complete the Jefferson papers by purchasing the private letters now offered to it, that collection will rank first in size and value. As it is, the calendar of letters to Jefferson which the department now holds will be as bulky as the Bulletin now before us.

—As Jefferson's writings are being published under intelligent editing, it is unnecessary to undertake to give the contents of any letters, however curious a compilation of "deadly parallels" might be. It is the man's industry as a letter-writer that is appalling. He rarely made use of an amanuensis, and the great mass of correspondence is in his own hand. When in France he adopted a letter-press copying machine, and on his return to America engaged C. W. Peale to make a "polygraph," by which two sheets could be written at the same time. A great part of the collection is thus either press-copy or polygraph, and in very good preservation. The attention of the reader is fixed by the letters to Washington (incomplete as these are known to be), Lafa-

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yette, Caspar Wistar, Dupont de Nemours, T. M. Randolph, and Gallatin. To his political "cronies" he was a free writer, and the calendar describes a hundred and more letters to each of the following: Madison (445), Monroe (162), Jay (103, nearly all official), and fewer to Short (95), Thomas Paine, the Smiths (Robert and Samuel), Mazzei, and Giles. A man of such wide sympathies had a correspondingly varied correspondence; but whether he is exchanging pretty nothings with a Frenchwoman, or politics with Madison, or science with Wistar, he is always interesting. The editing of this bulletin is an advance on previous issues, and Mr. Allen, under whose direction it is prepared, deserves praise for the work. It is to be hoped that these bulletins will induce Congress to do something towards making this mine of history generally available to the public.

—In view of the fact that the pre-Raphaelites in general, and Holman Hunt in particular, occupy prominent places in Nordau's gallery of "degenerates" (Hunt is, indeed, the only painter whose work is considered in detail by Nordau), it is curious to find that artist in his Romanes Lecture, delivered at Oxford on May 30 ('The Obligations of the Universities towards Art,' Macmillan), speaking of much of present English art as "a fever justly enough characterized by Nordau as *degeneration*," and adding: "He is wise in this, however much he may be at fault in some of his facts." Why Nordau should have devoted so much space, in a book on what he conceives to be the disease of "modernity," to a movement *nearly fifty years old, will probably remain a* mystery; but if even Holman Hunt cannot refrain from using the weapons of Nordau, who in future will be safe? It is in the natural course of things that years should have changed *the ardent revolutionary into a stiff-backed* conservative, and that Hunt should be now as alarmed for "the future of English Art" as were the Academicians whose dovecote was fluttered by the champions of the P. R. B. in 1849. "Realism" and the mania for study in Paris disturb his slumbers, and he cries out in solemn warning at the same time that Nordau, in the *North American Review*, is complaining that pre-Raphaelism is not dead, but is "just beginning on the Continent to exercise its baneful influence." With the arts of France and England thus mutually ruining each other, it would seem that the outlook for a purely national art anywhere is bad.

—Mr. Hunt, however, believes that he has an "antidote to false taste stronger than its poison." Let "certain graduates of the universities" have a practical training in art, including "a full acquaintance with the proportions of the human figure, . . . with the laws of balance and equipoise which movements and the carrying of weights control, as illustrated in Leonardo da Vinci's treatise and in Flaxman's lectures; . . . a knowledge of the laws of perspective, . . . the simple laws of light and shade, . . . and some understanding of the varieties of each nation's Decorative Design." This course "might entitle a young graduate to a degree which should qualify him for any post of responsibility in the control of national works, or in publishing opinions on matters of Art. . . . Such a simple provision by the universities . . . would impart great vitality to the whole range of English Art Design." It is quite certain that a trial of this remedy could do no harm, and it would be likely to improve the quality of art-criticism if the critics had to take such a degree; but we greatly doubt if anything will make a truly national school of art anywhere possible again: steam, electricity, and the photograph are against it.

—Writing from England, on August 30, a correspondent says:

"Quite a serious correspondence has been going on in the London *Times* for some days past upon the portentous subject as to how and where the Yankee Twang originated. The discussion was raised by Mr. J. Y. W. Macalister, who has been visiting Cornwall this year and last. In his intercourse with the 'less sophisticated inhabitants,' he was struck by their decidedly Yankee Twang. He began to wonder whether the Twang originated in Cornwall, and whether the early emigrants from Plymouth 'consisted largely or at all of Cornish folk.' Oppressed by his 'original discovery,' Mr. Macalister, who is this year 'resting close by the Lizard,' felt bound to 'write to the *Times*.' Then Mr. G. D. Goman, becoming jealous for the glories of Devonshire, claimed at least a part of the 'honour' attaching to the origin of the Twang for that famous county. By way of a clincher, he laid down that any one acquainted with the Devonshire dialect can read with ease, as if to the manner born, the humorous writings of Artemus Ward. Another correspondent put in a claim for Lincolnshire. In a recent walking tour in South Lincolnshire, this 'pedestrian' had been frequently reminded of his American friends, and could hardly believe that some of those with whom he conversed were born and bred in Lincolnshire; and was it not well known that the bulk of the Pilgrim Fathers were drawn from Boston, Lincolnshire, and had named the Hub of the Universe after it? Another correspondent claims the Twang as 'quite English,' being 'common among the rural population of all England except in the London area and Northumbria.' A former incumbent of Newlyn, in Cornwall, the Rev. W. S. Lach-Szyrma, caps the controversy by averring that the Cornish Twang is derived from America. He says: 'The Cornish miners have largely migrated to the United States, and then returned after some years' residence, bringing with them the American pronunciation of certain words, which has spread in the mining villages.' Whereupon, Mr. Harold Frederic, in oracular manner, declares that Parson Lach-Szyrma has given the correct explanation; says he himself knew it, all the time, and was only waiting to see whether anybody else was as wise as himself; and adds, that the why and the wherefore of the Twang may be gleaned from Mr. Fiske's 'The Beginnings of New England.' To-day the *Times* publishes no less than five letters upon the subject, in which as many different opinions are given by the several writers. One, with some show of learned authority, would assign to the County of Essex the origin of the Twang. Another attributes the Twang to the effects of climate. A third thinks religious energy in preaching is responsible for it. A fourth points out that the French and Spanish languages also have their Twang. A fifth repudiates the idea that Cornish men have a Twang of their own. No one seems to be aware that some of the older English Colonies also have a Twang. Thus, in Barbados, the Twang of the true Yankee kind is most marked, while, in some of the neighboring West Indian Colonies there is a very perceptible Drawl. There was hardly anything of the Puritan in the early settlers of those islands, although some of the early colonists were of the Parliamentarian party. Barbados was a hotbed of broken Cavaliers. The fact would seem to be that, while the Drawl may result from climatic conditions, the Twang is a survival of the manner in which English was spoken at the time of the exodus of those colonists who went forth from the mother country in the seventeenth century. As is customary, similar survivals are to be found in the country parts of Old England itself to this day."

—'Das Kanarierbuch' (Munich: J. Eichbichler; New York; B. Westermann & Co.) is the title of a posthumous work of Franz von Löher. In the compass of six hundred pages it gives a condensed survey of most of what has been written about the Canary Islands, as well as an elaborate argument in support of the thesis, sustained also in the author's previous writings, that the aboriginal inhabitants, whom the Spanish conquerors called Guanches, were of Germanic extraction, presumably Goths and Vandals. One of his conjectures is that *Guanches* is only the Spanish spelling of the Germanic name *Wandschen*. His method is, first, to give a full and detailed account of the partial conquests made in the fifteenth century by Jean de Bethencourt, a Norman gentleman, and of the subsequent Spanish conquest, together with copious citations from the principal books which describe the manners and customs, the religion, the character, and the physical traits of the aborigines, and, next, to compare all these qualities with those ascribed by Tacitus to the Germanic tribes known to the Romans. He discovers so great a number of resemblances, and shows, moreover, so great a variation of the Guanches from the usual type of primitive savages, that it must be conceded that he makes out a plausible case. At all events, he has produced a book full of curious and interesting learning, and presenting a very complete bibliography of the surprisingly voluminous literature of the subject, consisting of works in Spanish, French, German, and English, to say nothing of notices scattered in Greek, Latin, and Arabic writings. The English authorities are Hakluyt and George Glas.

A BOOK OF FACTS.

Harper's Book of Facts: A Classified History of the World, embracing Science, Literature, and Art. Compiled by Joseph H. Willsey. *Edited by Charlton T. Lewis.* Harper & Brothers. 1895.

"THE editors and the publishers confidently believe that the Book of Facts contains by far the largest amount of precise and accurate information on subjects of general interest that has ever been condensed into a single volume." Such are the pretensions of the work before us. The alternative title, "A Classified History of the World," and an avowed indebtedness to Haydn's 'Dictionary of Dates,' define its scope. The compiler of such a repository has a choice of several aims. He may seek to present in small compass an epitome of universal history, arranged with a due sense of proportion, recognizing the principle of development, and allotting to each country the space which its part in the history of civilization demands. Or he may cull strange facts from out-of-the-way sources with a view to explaining allusions which would be obscure to men of small libraries. Or he may seek to arrange a compromise between these two aims. In this case he abandons exact symmetry, adapting himself to the requirements of a given community. Sometimes he travels main roads and sometimes by-paths; but, wherever he goes, he is on the lookout for what will be most useful to his special audience, and so will be sure to add detail on subjects connected with the national history.

Mr. Willsey has chosen the last of these three courses. Haydn and Vincent, who had an English audience, seldom vouchsafed to include an American fact. This defect was partially remedied in Harper's reprint of 1869, where the events of the Revolution, of the war of 1812, of the Mexican and of the Indian wars were compiled by the late Benson J. Lossing; but the amount of distinctively American information then given was meagre in comparison with that which Mr. Willsey presents. To take a single instance, in 1869 the article "United States of America" filled thirteen columns. It

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now fills one hundred and eighteen. Nor are the States neglected for the sake of the Union. Massachusetts and New York get eleven pages each, and Rhode Island is given seven columns. The growth of the larger cities is also traced in detail.

One's first thought is to compare the 'Book of Facts' with its model in point of bulk. Here Haydn has been left far behind. The new material must equal in extent that of the old which has been incorporated. The bare statement that the work contains nineteen hundred columns of compressed and substantially accurate information means a great deal. This, however, is not all; Haydn has not merely been supplemented, he has been rewritten. The amount of labor involved in such an undertaking must have been enormous, and at least argues that kind of painstaking genius which Carlyle has praised. Greater precision marks the new work throughout. The system of cross-references has been retained and expanded. A host of facts can be found under any one of several heads, much to the advantage of the befogged inquirer. The printing is wonderfully accurate, and the typography commendable except in the matter of the headlines, where, for example, FRA is a poor substitute for FRANCE in an article covering nine pages.

While the merits of the book are easy to define, opinion will vary more as to its limitations. The field of history is an open tourney-ground, and it would be strange if a compiler could satisfy every one. We should say that this reconstituted Haydn would be of eminent service to the general American reader, but that it is not an ideal vade-mecum for the systematic student. When the supposed wants of the general American reader contend for space with the main lines of historical progress, the latter have to go to the wall. Speaking roughly, the affairs of this continent occupy more pages than are devoted to Egypt, Assyria, Greece, Rome, Italy, France, and Germany together. And in so far as historical perspective is thus lost, the book falls short of the ideal. But the attainment of anything like the ideal is apt to be indefinitely postponed because so few people seek to get at the relative importance of things. What is nearest is largest. Now, until a certain amount of national objectivity is gained throughout the world, we shall be forced to content ourselves with books of historical reference which are out of scale. This is a general criticism which indicts a universal shortcoming. Mr. Willsey's "Classified History of the World" is no more out of scale than the original English Haydn. The "Histoire Générale," edited by Lavisse and Rambaud, devotes more than its fair share of attention to France; and we all know how the Germans, the most objective of men, have come to write the history of the world from the standpoint of January 18th, 1871.

A more particular limitation reveals itself in what might almost be called a want of sound historical training. A few illustrations will explain what is meant. *Ancient history* is defined as follows: "Beginning in the Scriptures 4004 B. C., and with Herodotus about 1687 B. C.; is considered to end with the fall of the Eastern [*sic*] Empire, 476 A. D." For *Middle Ages* we are referred to *Dark Ages*, where we get the definition, "a term applied to the Middle Ages; according to Hallam about 1,000 years from the invasion of France by Clovis, 486, to that of Naples by Charles VIII., 1495. Learning was at a low ebb." "*Renaissance*, the revival of the classic style of art in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, under the Medici and others." Again, the preface states that the compiler has taken from Haydn and his successors "every fact which has more than a narrow or local interest." But on beginning with the letter A we soon find that *Ægospotami*, which Haydn included, has been dropped. Unless one is prepared to throw over the authority of Thucydides, the Peloponnesian war was a struggle of more than "a narrow and local interest." The battle by which Athens lost her last hope of imperial power ought not to have been deprived of its separate heading.

These are some of the wider considerations which are suggested by the 'Book of Facts.' In passing to the examination of specific errors, it is only fair to remind the reader of the extensive area traversed, and the difficulty of checking each statement so as to secure perfect accuracy. That an occasional lapse should occur is inevitable, and ought not to destroy confidence in the whole work. The geographical notices are not in keeping with the usual precision. They are often vague, and are not always accurate, *e. g.*, "*Gloucester*, a *seaport* town of England"; "*Mont Blanc*, in the *Swiss* (Pennine) Alps." *Montreal*, under its own heading, is styled "the *second* city in Lower Canada," and under the heading of the *American Association for the Advancement of Science* is twice placed in Ontario. The Dominion of Canada is confused with the two Canadas: "*British America* comprises the dominion of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, Labrador, British Columbia, and Vancouver's Island." The definition of *Pamirs*, "a lofty *mountain ridge* in Turkestan, central Asia," does not represent the latest geographical knowledge on the subjet. The Marne is not one of the tributaries of the *Rhine*, as we are told at p. 682, nor is Strassburg situated "on the banks" of the latter river. A statement which shows palpable ignorance of historical geography is borrowed from Haydn: *Savoy* is described as "formerly a province in n. Italy, east of Piedmont." No uninformed reader could possibly make out from this that the possessions of the House of Savoy lay at first on the northern slopes of the Alps, and that only by marriage, grant, and conquest did they tend to become Italian. But the most complicated blunder is to be found under *Bernard, Mount St.*, "so called from a monastery founded on it by Bernardine Menthon in 962. Velan, its highest peak, about 8,000 feet high, is covered with perpetual snow. Hannibal, it is said, led his army, by this route, over the little St. Bernard pass into Italy (218 B. C.); and in May, 1800, *Bonaparte crossed with his troops by the* same road." This item ought to be completely rewritten, for it contains more than one error besides its confusion of the Great with the Little St. Bernard. Hospices on both passes were established by St. Bernard of Menthon, but the date, 962, should not be given for either without qualification. Canon Bourgeois, Prior of the Great St. Bernard, says that in neither case can the date of foundation be ascertained with certainty, though the Great St. Bernard hospice was founded about the end of the tenth century. The height of the Velan, "the domed Velan with his snows," is 12,353 feet. No Alpine mountain of 8,000 feet "is covered with perpetual snow." Hannibal's route across the Alps is, of course, an open question. Mommsen declares for the Little St. Bernard, but several distinguished geographers and Alpinists have other theories. It is certain that the Marengo army did not cross, as is stated, by the Little St. Bernard. Three instances of haziness in geographical definition are afforded by p. 902. "*Valtelline*, n. Italy, a district near the Rhætian Alps." It would have been much better to add, "the upper valley of the Adda." "*Vatican*, Rome, the ancient Mons Vaticanus, a hill of Rome." No intimation of its place on the Trastevere side is given. "*Vaud*, a Swiss canton, long held by the Franks," etc.

In another group may be placed a considerable number of notices which seem hardly adequate. Individual judgment varies so much as to what is important that one ought not to complain of omissions unless glaring. But when a topic is broached at all, completeness of survey is not too much to demand., *e. g.*, "*Latin Union*, that of France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, to maintain the use of the same coinage, from 1865 to 1880." But the Union has since received accessions, viz., Spain, Greece, Servia, and Rumania. The article on *Coroner* does not show that the functions of that officer were ever wider than they are at present. Under *Self-denying Ordinance* the famous measure of 1645 is mentioned, along with a somewhat similar measure of the colony of Victoria in 1858, but the compiler quite overlooks the most momentous of self-denying ordinances, the one which, in 1791, shut out members of the National Assembly from the Legislative Assembly. The vicissitudes of *scrutin de liste* and *scrutin d'arrondissement* in France are partially traced, but the account stops with Welbeck [*sic*]-Rousseau's bill of 1885. The impression left is that France still retains *scrutin de liste*. On *High and Low Church* we get nothing more recent than Dr. Sacheverell. A list of imaginary political systems includes Sir Philip Sidney's 'Arcadia,' and omits the 'Leviathan' of Hobbes. *Trier* is not credited with its Roman remains. John Bright is not spoken of in connection with *Cave of Adullam*, nor Huxley in connection with *Agnostic*.

Finally, let us review a few errors taken at large. Mr. Willsey is not happy in his account of Justinian's codification. While there is no separate title for Corpus Juris Civilis, some of its component parts are treated under special heads. A list of codes comprises "the code of the Emperor Justinian in 529—a digest from it made in 533." The Digest was indeed issued in 533, but, so far from being based on the Codex Constitutionum of 529, it is a series of selections from the writings of thirty-nine jurisconsults. An equally elementary mistake occurs in the description of the Novels. "*Novels* (Novellæ), a part of Justinian's Code, published 535." *Heruli:* No good warrant exists for the assertion that Odoacer became "King of Italy, 476," although it has often been made—among others by Bryce (whom Freeman brought to book) in the first edition of the 'Holy Roman Empire.' "*Interim of Augsburg*, a decree of the Emperor Charles V. in 1548 to reconcile Catholics and Protestants, which entirely failed." The Interim is not usually represented as a step towards conciliation. This reminds one of some phrases in an inscription on the bust of Pius IV., S. Maria Maggiore, Trent: "Profligata hæreticorum pravitas, recta professio, disciplinaque stabilita, reddita orbi Christiano pax." The "reconciliation" of the Interim and the "peace" of the Catholic reaction belong to the same species. This is not the only sixteenth-century slip. The date of the publication of 'Utopia' is cited three times, and twice wrongly, 1548 instead of 1516. Lyly's 'Euphues,' which appeared in 1579, the

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same year with the 'Shepherd's Calendar' and Gosson's 'School of Abuse,' is put down 1581. *Erastus* is the Greek, not the Latin, equivalent of Lieber, and *Zwingli* did not "separate Switzerland from the papal dominion as Luther did Saxony": the battle of Kappel, the Borromean League, and the War of the Sonderbund are events which prove the contrary. *Caliph* is successor, not "vicar or lieutenant." The *Hundred Years' War* came to an end with the fall of Bordeaux, 1453, not in 1437; and the *Wars of the Roses* with the battle of Bosworth, 1485, not in 1471. Under *Sacrament* the story is repeated that the Emperor Henry VII. of Luxemburg was poisoned "by a priest in the consecrated wafer." The charge should have been brought, if at all, against a Dominican friar. It is almost certainly false, and is chiefly memorable for having produced one of the choicest pieces of billingsgate in existence. Haydn had "*Neustria*, or West France, a kingdom allotted to Clotaire by his father Clovis at his death in 711. His descendant, Charlemagne, became sole King of France in 771." In revision 711 has been changed to 511, but the rest of the statement is allowed to stand. On the following page we are told that "Newfoundland consented to union with the dominion of Canada, March, 1869." Judge Prowse, in his recent and excellent 'History of Newfoundland;' says of the 1869 election: "The result was an overwhelming defeat for the Confederate party; they were simply annihilated, and, from that day to this, Confederation has never been put forward before the country as a practical political question."

The foregoing list of mistakes will show that the 'Book of Facts' is not immaculate. It would be easy to draw up another list of omissions and inconsistencies, but, remembering the dimensions and detail of this and kindred works, we refrain. We even hesitate to suggest the correction of a shortcoming which amusingly enlivens this weighty compilation, viz., in the indication of French pronunciation. "Loa des suspekts'" (*loi des suspects*), "oc-trwa'" (*octroi*), "let'r de ka shā'" (*lettre de cachet*), and "ko-ne'-sān-s dê tan" (*connaissance des temps*) will give some idea of the editor's wild phonetics. A German sample is "länt'-vār" for *Landwehr*. For its strong points, and they are many, the book merits and is sure of a wide use.

THE *CHALLENGER* EXPEDITION.—II.

Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger during the years 1872–76: A Summary of the Scientific Results. By John Murray, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition. In two parts, with Appendices. London. 1895.

In addition to the collecting of the strictly deep-sea animals, tow-net experiments were made by the *Challenger*, at depths of 500, 1,000, and even 2,000 fathoms, which led Murray to believe that the intermediate zones of depths were inhabited. More recent experiments have thrown considerable doubt on the conclusions of Murray, and seem to indicate that there is a limit, somewhere about 250 or 300 fathoms from the surface, at and below which pelagic organisms either do not exist or occur very rarely. The question of the bathymetrical extension of pelagic organisms is complicated from the fact that we know as yet but little of the composition of the so-called pelagic fauna, even within the depth at which it is known to occur, and still further from the fact that, as these organisms die, their carcasses must be caught by the nets on their way down to the bottom, where they serve as food for the deepsea-bottom species.

The pelagic algæ are the primary source of food for the majority of pelagic and deep-sea animals. Murray looks upon them and Radiolaria as well as Foraminifera as probably the descendants, slightly modified, of an ancient and universal fauna and flora derived from the simplest forms of life, which, perhaps, appeared in the accumulations about the mud line in pre-Cambrian times. Pelagic Radiolaria and Foraminifera occur in great abundance in pre-Cambrian rocks, and from this Murray infers that as they to-day abound in regions where the water has a relatively high temperature, the pre Cambrian sea must have been a warmer sea as a whole than the existing oceans. Murray points out the absence of Pteropods provided with calcareous shells of large size in the arctic and antarctic regions, and contrasts the coral-reef areas of the tropics and their absence in polar regions and at great depths with what existed in palæozoic and even later geological times, when we had massive reefs. From this he concludes that the waters of these ancient oceans must have had a temperature of from 65° to 70° Fahr. at the poles—a temperature favoring the deposition of carbonate of lime.

Murray believes that in early palæozoic times the ocean basins were not so deep as at the present time, and that life was then either absent or represented only by bacteria and other low forms in great depths, as appears to be the case at present in the Black Sea, and that there was, in all likelihood, also insufficient oxygen in deep water to support a deep-sea fauna. He argues from the evidence of the fauna and flora of the carboniferous period that there must have been an almost complete equality in the distribution of light and heat at that epoch. In early mesozoic times, cooling at the poles and differentiation into zones of climate probably commenced. The colder and denser water descended to greater depths of the ocean, and carried with it a large supply of oxygen, making life in the deep sea possible for the first time. Of the explanations which have been given to account for this uniform condition of light and heat all over the globe, Murray (who came independently to give the same explanation) adopts the one suggested by Blandet, which attributes these conditions to the very much greater size of the sun in the early stages of the earth's history. This explanation, however, has not found favor with physicists.

The general similarity between the littoral faunas and floras of the Arctic and Antarctic regions has been noted by many naturalists. The resemblance between the animals from the dredgings and trawlings in high southern latitudes and those from like positions in high northern latitudes is frequently pointed out by the naturalists who have written the *Challenger* memoirs. They have given various explanations for the existence of representative species north and south of the equator. Murray has made an analysis of the species procured south of the Tropic of Capricorn (about 3 000), which shows that fully 88 per cent. are limited to the southern zone, while only 12 per cent. extend to the tropical and northern zones; and again that 6 per cent. of the species captured in the southern zone are recorded in the northern zone, but not from the intervening tropical zone. This points to a greater similarity between the widely separated polar zones than between contiguous zones. Examining the species found in the southern zone at greater depths than 500, 1,000, and 1,500 fathoms, he finds that nearly 80 per cent. are limited to the southern zone, and nearly 7 per cent. occur in the northern and southern zones and not in the intervening tropical zone. From this Murray concludes that there is not sufficient evidence for the belief in a universal deep-sea fauna of great antiquity. There are, according to him, many indications that the migration into deep water has taken place continuously since mesozoic times, when possibly cooling set in at the poles and is even going on now. The indications that this migration is taking place principally from polar regions are more distinct than those of migration from any other quarter.

The deep-sea forms with archaic characters probably represent very ancient groups which we may consider the remnants of faunæ that have come down to our times from remote geological periods. Their discovery is only in the line of evidence of the permanence of other ancient types, such as Lingula, the horse-shoe crabs, Pentacrinus, Ceratodus and other animals the representatives of mesozoic or tertiary types among echinoderms, crustacea, sponges, and fishes, which are found in shallower waters. Moseley regarded the pelagic animals as the original stock from which other marine faunæ had sprung, so that in early ages animals with pelagic larvæ would naturally spread over greater reaches of the ocean both in the shallow waters and towards the deeper parts of continental areas. Murray infers that animals with pelagic larvæ would, on the cooling of the water at the poles, be either killed off or be driven to the tropics. There seems to be much in favor of the theory that in the tropical regions we have the remnants of a once universally distributed shallow-water fauna. The similarity of the fauna of the polar regions would be accounted for by the disappearance of its original shallow-water fauna, which had been replaced by the migration shorewards of the fauna near the 100-fathom line.

Murray calls attention to the great contrast existing between the marine faunæ of the East and West coast of Africa. He argues from this that the faunæ have been separated a longer time than the faunæ on each side of the Isthmus of Panama, where we find a number of species identical on both sides of the Isthmus. From the geographical distribution of allied species he further concludes that the land masses of the Antarctic and Great Southern Ocean have been separated sufficiently long to admit of specific variations arising even in the cold Antarctic waters—a view which is opposed to the existence of an extended Antarctic continent, connecting all other continents by their southern extremities in recent geological times. Had this been the case, we might look for many circumpolar species as in the northern hemisphere, where continuous coast lines have existed for immense periods of time in arctic and boreal latitudes.

It was noted during the *Challenger* expedition that particles of quartz were absent from the deposits towards the central portions of the oceanic basins, while small particles of quartz characterize the deposits laid down near shore. Murray thus draws a broad distinction between terrigenous deposits containing quartz particles and pelagic deposits in which they are almost wholly absent; so that while it is true that there are numerous examples of rocks apparently laid down in a deep sea, it must have been in a deep sea in close proximity to some then existing land. It is, however,

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very doubtful if there is any continental rock which has been laid down under conditions similar to those under which pelagic deposits are now being formed at a considerable distance from continental land. According to Murray, lime, iron, magnesia, manganese, and other alkalies have accumulated in the abyssal deposits of the central oceans at the expense of the continental rocks, and have been deposited there by chemical changes on areas of the sea-bed where there has been an exceedingly slow rate of accumulation. Murray concludes that the former land masses existing in the comparatively shallow oceanic basins of former ages may be the submerged bases of oceanic islands which consist wholly of eruptive rocks. It is very probable that the oceanic areas have not in abyssal or pelagic areas been subjected in earlier geological history to such revolutions as have remodelled the continental areas, and certainly not during any of the later geological periods.

The example set by the *Challenger* has been followed by other nations, and they have filled some of the gaps left by that expedition. The French, with the *Travailleur* and *Talisman*, have explored the Eastern Atlantic off the northwestern coast of Africa. The Italians and Austrians have examined the Mediterranean and sent expeditions to circumnavigate the globe, but their results are not to be compared with those of the *Challenger*. The Swedes and Norwegians have devoted their energies to the northern Atlantic. England has sent minor expeditions off her coasts. The *Investigator* has dredged in parts of the Indian Ocean. The United States Coast Survey steamer *Blake* has, for a series of years, investigated the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, of the Caribbean, and western Atlantic. The United States Fish Commission steamer *Albatross*, not satisfied with scouring the continental slope of the eastern and western coasts of the United States, has extended her field of work to the Bering Sea, and has made one campaign in the Panamic district. And, finally, the Prince of Monaco has constructed a yacht especially intended for deep-sea work. The results of all these expeditions are gradually coming before the public, and serve to confirm and complement the observations of the *Challenger*. Covering limited areas, they are naturally carried on with greater detail, impossible in an expedition covering the ground surveyed by the *Challenger*. It is greatly to be hoped that similar investigations may hereafter be carried on by Government vessels from well selected stations, so that the work so well started relating to the physics, chemistry, geology, and biology of the sea may be continued under the most favorable conditions.

Those only who have had the good fortune to be engaged in similar expeditions can form any idea of "the enormous labor connected with preserving, cataloguing, and packing the collections on board," and of that involved in their subsequent examination and distribution to specialists in many parts of the world. Men of science are grateful to Dr. Murray for his share in the great undertaking which has come to a close. It is to his untiring zeal, to his capacity for work, to his tact under most trying conditions, to his personal sacrifices, and to his unbounded enthusiasm on behalf of the *Challenger* expedition that science owes the completion of an exploration and of researches connected with it "which mark the greatest advance in the knowledge of our planet since the celebrated geographical discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth century."

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES.

A History of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. By Thomas O'Gorman, Professor of Church History in the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. [American Church History Series.] New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1895.

An author's opening paragraph is apt to be his worst, and Prof. O'Gorman's is not exceptional in this respect. If it sounded the keynote of the whole performance, the happiest would be those who did not stay for more. But it does not, while still we have throughout rather the advocacy of the religious partisan than the impartiality of the historian, and here and there a splenetic outburst well calculated to make the judicious smile or grieve. It is hardly to be hoped that the class of persons attracted to the A. P. A. will furnish a quota, however small, to the readers of Prof. O'Gorman's story; but, if it should, it is interesting to imagine how it would impress them, especially its note of injured innocence, which is perhaps the most characteristic that it sounds. They have not been accustomed to think of the Roman Catholic Church in America as a persecuted church, a church suffering from unjust discriminations. The Jesuits of their imagination are not the saints and martyrs of Prof. O'Gorman's glowing admiration. There is much here that they would find profitable for warning and rebuke and instruction in ecclesiastical history. But if the general view is far more just than that of their brutal misconception, it is not as complete as possible. The Protestant jealousy of Roman Catholic expansion is not so entirely irrational and absurd as it would be if what is here apparent were the length and breadth of the whole matter.

But it is not as if all that has been neglected or suppressed were of the less flattering kind. Once we have passed from Part I., "The Mission Period," to Part II., "The Organized Church," the choice of material is as unhappy for the general reader as up to this point it is attractive and impressive. Everywhere there is a nervous insistence on the Americanism of the author's church which is perhaps excusable and is certainly amusing. One of its traits is a shame-faced avoidance of the terms Roman Catholicism and Catholicism. Instead we have Catholicity, a silly affectation, and appropriate only as the designation of a religious temper, not of a religious institution.

The book is generally well written, but especially so in the early parts, many of which are freshened as by a wind blowing across the pages of Parkman's delightful histories. The arrangement of the matter is perhaps the best possible, but that it is distracting there can be no doubt. Each set of missions is taken up separately and carried on to the conclusion of the mission period, and thus we are obliged to retrace the same chronological course ten or twelve times. To obtain a setting for his missionary annals, Prof. O'Gorman is obliged to make a liberal draught upon the annals of discovery and exploration. For the discovery and exploration he would, indeed, claim a religious inspiration, and it must be confessed that the strands of secular greed and religious zeal are twisted so closely that to distinguish them is difficult. The account of the Spanish missions contrasts more sharply than any other with the average conceptions of our Protestant communities; but, when all is said, what have we but an account of general mismanagement redeemed by instances of splendid personal devotion and heroic sacrifice and death? The missionary work was almost entirely that of the regular clergy. The mistake, we are assured, was in not sending the secular clergy to reap and garner where the regulars had tilled and sown. There was a lamentable series of collisions between the seculars and regulars, and between the latter, more particularly, and the military representatives of the Spanish throne. Spanish and French alike endeavored to hold the country by a tenure too much akin to that of the Roman occupation of Great Britain, the futility of which is one of the most easily explicable of all the miracles of history.

Hardly can Prof. O'Gorman be denied the satisfaction which he takes in the zeal of his church as compared with the Protestant sects for the conversion of the Indians. But then, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the Roman Church had an organized propaganda perfected by centuries of use, which the Protestants had not, and the predominance of ritual in its religion made the transition easier for the Indian than did the Protestant dogmatics. For him the conversion was but the exchange of one system of magic for another, of the "medicine-man" for the priest whose water of baptism was a new and more effective charm. How deep the conversion went, how much more it meant than submission to baptism, it would be good to know, but on this head we have little information. In New Mexico, where whole tribes were gathered in, the suddenness with which they renounced their new faith and fell upon the intruders forces from Prof. O'Gorman the confession that the survivals of their heathenism were the most dangerous elements in the situation. It is a melancholy fact that scarcely less dangerous were the habits of the intruders—their intemperance and licentiousness. By far the most interesting chapter of the Spanish section is chapter vii., which treats of the Californian missions. The success of these was coextensive with their segregation of the natives in communities subject to monastic supervision. A scheme so artificial could not be indefinitely maintained, but with its breaking down came a general relapse of the natives to their original condition, miserably qualified by contact with the Spanish settlers. Could any confession be more shameful than that such contact was fatal, seeing that it was contact with a race that had enjoyed the advantages of Christianity for a thousand years? That the Californian missions cannot be credited to Prof. O'Gorman's darling Jesuits is one of his regrets, and another is La Salle's antipathy for the order. But he has many narratives that are eloquent with their well-earned praise. Father Druillettes among the Abenakis of Maine wears his halo with a delightful difference from the majority, for he "was in no hurry to give baptism," and insisted on total abstinence from fire-water and cessation from inter-tribal wars, as well as the abandonment of the native superstitions, as conditions of admission to the Church.

That there is a lack of proportion in Prof. O'Gorman's book, an exaggeration of the earlier and more picturesque elements at the expense of what is later and of more importance, is evident from the fact that the mission period has 274 pages, and the whole of the last century of organization and expansion only 230; while of recent matters of first-rate importance there is next to nothing. Did the historian "remember to forget" the declaration of infallibility, or merely forget it? It is true that this was a declaration of the whole Church, but as such the American part was as much

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concerned in it as any other, and the attitude of the American bishops towards such a conspicuous development of dogma is certainly an interesting matter. Moreover, the reader would naturally like to know something about the relation of American "Catholicity" to the great questions of criticism and science which have so agitated the Protestant churches during the last half century; but of these things we have not a syllable, and but one sentence, which may mean anything or nothing, in regard to the infallible wisdom of the Pope concerning the relations of capital and labor. A full discussion of the most recent developments of the school question was to be expected, but here again we have only "brilliant flashes of silence." In short, Prof. O'Gorman's second part is devoted almost exclusively to the episcopal expansion of the Church, to the creation of new bishops and archbishops, with brief personal histories of these great ecclesiastics. While the real good accomplished has been largely the work of faithful parish priests, their humble services are hopelessly, perhaps inevitably, obscured by the fierce light that beats on their superiors in the hierarchical order of supremacy. Either as unpalatable or unimportant, the growth of religious houses for men and women is but casually mentioned.

Apart from the hierarchical expansion, the interest of Prof. O'Gorman's second part centres in three particulars: "Trusteeism," European State interference, and Native American opposition. As for the last of these, much more is made of its earlier developments than of the later and more political, which did so much to break up the old political parties and made the formation of the Republican party more expeditious. Had Native Americanism prospered, we are assured that the South would have triumphed in the civil war. It was Catholic immigration that gave the North the men and the resources that enabled it to win the victory. If this claim is excessive, the same cannot be said of any that is made of anti-slavery service. It is certain that the South between Maryland and Louisiana never took kindly to Roman Catholicism, but the Church returned good for evil, and of the prophets against slavery none were found in her house. Father Mathew hastened to allay the fears his coming stirred in the pro-slavery camp. That the war was caused by slavery and tended logically to its destruction, these chapters give no sign. Two great events are named in the decade 1860–'70: they are Lincoln's death and the Pope's Syllabus. Nothing is said of Lincoln's emancipation proclamation and the constitutional prohibition of slavery.

An amusing episode was that in which Franklin figured as an acceptable adviser of the Roman Curia, urging the supremacy of the French hierarchy over the American churches. Nothing came of this, but for a long time the hand of the Irish church was heavy on the Papal court in its American dealings, whereby the manning of the church by native priests and bishops was considerably delayed. But, of all the troubles of the church, that growing out of "trusteeism" was the most serious. In New York and Philadelphia it had incidents of the greatest bitterness, prolonged through many years. Prof. O'Gorman does not enter into the philosophy of the matter so carefully as one might wish. He assumes the malignity of trusteeism—*i. e.*, the vesting of church property in trustees and their right to choose the parish priests. Evidently this system was incongruous with the centralizing logic of the church, but it was much less incongruous with American ideas of local self-government. It agreed very well with these, and from them drew its staying quality. Archbishop Hughes gave the system its fatal blow in New York, but in Buffalo it died a slower death. In conclusion, Prof. O'Gorman stoutly takes issue with the Roman Catholics who have insisted, extravagantly, as he thinks, on Roman Catholic losses in America. He shows conclusively that they have been much exaggerated; and still the Roman Catholic communion (9,077,865) is less than it logically ought to be in view of the Roman Catholic immigration and the average rate of increase in the general population.

THE BODY OF LATIN POETRY.

Corpus Poetarum Latinorum a se aliisque denuo recognitorum et brevi lectionum varietate instructorum edidit J. P. Postgate. Londini: Sumtibus G. Bell et filiorum. [New York: Macmillan & Co.] 4to. 1894. Vol. I. Price $6.50.

The *Corpus* of Walker (1827) and that of Weber (1833) have long been almost useless. Their texts are now obsolete as a result of the exact investigations into the readings and relationships of the MSS. of the Roman poets to which so many of the greatest scholars have devoted themselves for two generations, and the development of text criticism and emendation into a science has left the more autoschediastic efforts of early scholars far in the rear. During the course of these investigations and of this development an attempt to produce a new *Corpus* would have been rash in the extreme, but at length a time has come when scholars, reposing with some degree of security upon the labors of the past fifty years, may dare to print the works of the Latin poets with greater confidence than was ever possible before. This has been done for the different writers by the various specialists who have given themselves each to the study of his chosen author, and the names of Vahlen and L. Müller, of Lachmann and Munro, of Ribbeck, Ellis, Schwabe, Keller, and Merkel seem each hardly complete without the addition of the name of the ancient poet with whom the modern scholar appears to be indissolubly connected. Now or never the time was ripe for a new collection of results into a fresh *Corpus*.

But was it ever worth the doing? Inquiry shows that opinion is divided. The present reviewer, for instance, cannot fancy himself carrying away for his vacation reading-tour this ponderous tome, held with difficulty on the knees, instead of ten convenient little volumes which weigh altogether no more and take up no greater space in a box than this one *corpus*. And he shrewdly suspects that the chief part it will play in his library will be that of a dust-gatherer. But *quot homines;* and certainly to one class of readers the work should prove most useful. The non-professional scholar, the man of "fine literary tastes" (a character by no means to be despised, in spite of the sniffs which often disturb the air about him), needs a book like this to take the place of his ancestral Delphins and Anthons, if he wants to know with any sort of exactness what it was that the Latin poets really wrote. And, possibly, a professional or two may keep it with his dictionaries in his revolving bookcase (that great boon to the sedentary), and consult it to save himself the trouble of crossing the room to his shelves.

For it is a book in which one may place confidence, and, if it was to be made at all, probably no better editor could have been found than Dr. Postgate. He has often given his proofs, and he is known in the classical world as a sound and thorough scholar. His natural conservatism well fitted him for the present task, and his reputation will be enhanced by the manner in which he has performed it. This first volume of the *Corpus* contains Ennius ('Annals' and 'Satires'), Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid. It consists of about six hundred pages, of which Ovid occupies almost exactly half. The page is printed in double columns of from sixty to seventy verses, with the apparatus at the bottom. The type is necessarily small, but it is clear enough for continuous reading, although economy of space precluded "leading" enough to make it easy to find a passage by a glance down the page. The book has been long in preparation, and the first author, Ennius, went to press in 1888. The dates of the printing of the others are given with scrupulous exactness in the special prefaces to each author.

The general principles which Dr. Postgate laid down for his editors required them to give, in either the text or the critical notes, all the important readings of the best MSS.; in dealing with conjectures to admit to the text only such as appeared certain, and to insert in the notes all the most important conjectures, by whomsoever made, which seemed to fall short of deserving the adjective *certissima*. The selection of these, as a whole, is excellently made, and few important conjectures are missing. In the matter of orthography, uniformity among the different authors was not sought save that the absolutely bad was to be corrected away, while all traces of genuine antiquity were to be left even at the risk of inconsistency. Dr. Postgate's remarks on this subject in his preface are highly commendable, though we note here (p. viii.) the misprint of Lucr. V. 714 f. for III., 713 f. The Romans were not under the thrall of any "Unabridged," and the Secular Games inscription should be a warning against pedantry in matters orthographic.

Coming to the authors, the text of Ennius is by L. Müller, and, being a reprint, with a few changes, of his edition of 1885, it hardly needs further comment here. The changes seem to be orthographical, and based upon Cicero's comments on Father Ennius's spelling. It was useless to expect it, but it is a pity that Müller should continue to pay no attention to the protests of Vahlen and Marx against his textual conclusions. The Lucretius is another reprint—of Munro's posthumous edition of 1886; the apparatus consisting of selections by Dr. Postgate from Munro and Lachmann, with some additions drawn from later researches in the MSS. The poem, of course, went to press before the appearance of the edition of the Discoverer of Lacunæ, Brieger. Dr. Postgate himself contributes his own excellent text of Catullus of 1889, which has already been reviewed in these columns. The works of Virgil were freshly edited for this *Corpus* by the late Prof. Nettleship, and the printing was fortunately finished before his death. He accepted to the full the sound doctrine that little is to be done for the text of Virgil by modern emendations. He used extreme caution in admitting any such into the body of the work, and even his apparatus contains but very few modern names. On the other hand, he held the ancient commentators in high esteem, and introduced many of their readings into his text, while his apparatus gives a full account of its condition in the fourth and fifth centuries. This edition of Virgil will commend itself to all conservative souls, wearied of the

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ephemeral brilliancy of the emender or the polytropic shifts of the transposer, and we think it matter for regret that it is hidden away in this ponderous volume instead of appearing by itself in some handy form.

Horace, too, is freshly edited by Dr. James Gow, who is known in this country chiefly by his 'Companion to School Classics,' although specimens of his Horatian studies published in the *Classical Review* have attracted some notice. His apparatus is drawn from that of Keller's smaller edition of 1878, though it exhibits readings from fewer manuscripts than Keller's (16 instead of 24) and includes the *Blandinius antiquissimus*. For Dr. Gow has no sympathy with the theory that Cruquius was a humbug. His low opinion of the critical value of Keller and Holder's three classes has already been expressed in the *Classical Review*. Differing as he does from the two Germans on two such important points, it may seem strange that he should have been satisfied to follow their manuscript collations blindly: certainly it would have been more to his credit, and less confusing to those who are likely to consult this *Corpus*, had he confined himself to the exhibition of the readings of a very few manuscripts which he might have collated for himself. On the origin of our present text his own view is that there were two editions of Horace in antiquity, and that the scribe of our manuscripts had several copies of each, from which they followed now one and now another. Here and there we think that Dr. Gow has departed too widely from Dr. Postgate's principles about the admission of conjectures. Scholars will not agree that his conjecture of *expectate* (in the famous crux of *C.* iii. 14. 11) is to be called *certissima*, yet he admits it to his text. Such things as Oberdick's *ravi* for *pauci* of *Epod.* 13. 13 and Francke's *rabulae* for *tabulae* of *Sat.* ii. 1. 86 are not entitled to the honors even of the apparatus. And, to put it mildly, we prefer Horace's *quandoque bonus dormitat Homerus* to the *quando navos dormitat* of Mr. Housman.

In Tibullus we find the last Latin work of the lamented Edward Hiller, a revision of his admired edition of 1885. Dr. Postgate himself edits the puzzling Propertius, using Baehrens of 1880 and adding a collation of the manuscript of Holkham Hall. Conservatism was naturally to be expected of Dr. Postgate as compared with Baehrens, and this indeed we have, so far as verbal conjecture is concerned; but it is surprising to find how often he resorts to transposition and rearrangement. In the employment of this dangerous and, as many think, unscientific device, the sad examples of his predecessors seem to have had no terrors for him, and it needs no prophet to predict that he will have to suffer severely in his turn at the hands of the next editor of Propertius.

The works of Ovid were intrusted to five different hands, for here again we meet with new editions throughout. The 'Heroides' were the task of Mr. Arthur Palmer, the erotic works, the 'Metamorphoses' and the 'Halieutica' of Mr. G. M. Edwards, the 'Fasti' of Mr. G. A. Davies, the 'Tristia' and 'Ex Ponto' of Mr. S. G. Owen, and the 'Ibis' of Mr. Housman. The proper consideration of their united work calls for greater space than these columns could afford, and for a longer study than we now find possible.

Malay Sketches. By Frank Athelstane Swettenham. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xi, 289.

This is a series of remarkably vivid pictures of a life still scarcely touched by Western influence, yet in the moment of transition. The scenes described are not those which the ordinary traveller would see, for the Malay is reserved and suspicious, and his confidence must be won before he will reveal his true self to the white man. But in the course of the twenty years which Mr. Swettenham has lived among them as British Resident at Perak and other states of the Malay peninsula he has not only gained the confidence of the natives, but has become deeply interested in the people whom he has helped so long to govern. To enable others to share in this interest, to understand something of the Malay's life, and to "sympathize with the motives that will lead him to acts of high courage and self-sacrifice," is his purpose in writing this book.

The twenty-two sketches of which it consists may be divided into three groups, each of which is marked by some distinguishing characteristic. The pleasantest is that in which some of the amusements of the higher classes are described, as, the fishing picnics, the hunting for turtles' eggs, the symbolical dances, and the water-tobogganing. This last consists in sliding down the inclined face of a rock on a stream of water an inch or two deep into a shallow pool. In a larger group, tales of robbery, murder, and carrying off of women, the tragic element prevails, and the Malay, notwithstanding his kindly disposition, his sobriety, courage, and trustworthiness, is shown to be thoroughly "impregnated with vice." Among these is an incident, told with great simplicity and power, of the homicidal mania known as *mĕng-âmok*, or "running amuck," though this term is also applied to "the onslaught of a body of men in war time." In this case a priest, an elderly man of devotional habits, came quietly to his wife and her brother, and, after asking their pardon, murdered them. Then, rushing out from the house, he killed and wounded seven other persons before escaping to the jungle. Here he remained for two days, and then, with his madness unabated, returned to his village, but, before he could do further harm, was slain. No cause was suggested for this sudden development of a murderous instinct, but it is "quite possible that the man was suffering under the burden of some real or fancied wrong which, after long brooding, darkened his eyes and possessed him with this insane desire to kill."

The mysterious element which enters so largely into the life of all Eastern peoples is the characteristic of the remaining group of stories. They are all based on facts which came under the author's own observation, and are related by him without the slightest attempt at explanation. Accounts of the magic mirror, the divining-rod, the exorcising of evil spirits, and the detection of a thief by the twisting bowl, are more or less common, but the *latah* is not so well known. This is an influence, akin to hypnotism, exerted upon a person whose attention has been suddenly arrested by a touch or noise or a meaning glance; during which he will do whatever he is "told or signed to do without hesitation, whether the act signified is difficult, dangerous, or painful." Two of Mr. Swettenham's police force were subjects of this "disease," and were continually being baited by their companions. On one occasion a roll of matting was presented to the younger of these men with the words, "Kâsim, here is your wife."

"Even now I do not forget the smile of beatitude and satisfaction with which Kâsim Minor regarded that undesirable and figureless bundle. Breathing the words in a low voice, almost sighing to himself, 'Kâsim, here is your wife,' he embraced the matting with great fervor, constantly repeating, 'My wife! my wife!' Some one said, 'Kiss her!' and he kissed her—repeatedly kissed her. Then, by another inspiration (I do not say from whence), some one brought up the other Kâsim, and, introducing him to the other side of the roll of matting, said, also very quietly, 'Kâsim, this is *your* wife!' and Kâsim the elder accepted the providential appearance of his greatly desired spouse, and embraced her with not less fervor than his namesake and rival."

It may be added that neither of the men was married. The disease, which is probably hereditary, prevails among all the Malays, but is common only among certain tribes. The same kind of possession has been observed among Canadian lumbermen, though not in so marked a form, the subject being generally the butt of the camp.

The closing chapters of this deeply interesting book narrate the circumstances attending the murder of Mr. Birch, the first British Resident at Perak, and the narrow escape of the author, who was his subordinate, from the same fate. These, and many other of the sketches, in fact, throw much light on the methods by which Great Britain administers these strange lands, and exhibit the English official at his best as a man full of patience, courage, and resource. Though Mr. Swettenham aims only to portray the character and habits of life of the Malay, he describes the scenery of his land with great skill, so that one feels the strong resemblance between the jungle, beautiful yet often deadly to those who venture into it, and the people whose home it is. The make-up of the book is very attractive. It is admirably printed on thick paper, and yet is extraordinarily light.

A Handbook of English Composition. By James Morgan Hart, Professor of Rhetoric and English Philology in Cornell University. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1895.

This manual aims to supply a more practical mode of instruction in English composition; to serve this purpose for school and college; to interest and stimulate. It is marked by a fresh presentation, and by evident care in the choice of illustrations from standard authors. There is much novel treatment with but little innovation (as in terminology), and little claim to originality in the larger sense. The author's indebtedness to his predecessors is scrupulously acknowledged, and four leading works are evaluated at some length at the close. To these would have been added, we are sure, had Prof. Hart been aware of it, Dr. Edwin Herbert Lewis's masterly dissertation on 'The History of the English Paragraph' (Chicago University, 1894).

Prof. Hart begins with the Paragraph, that foster-child of silence and slow Time which is at last cutting such a figure in the text-books; and the rest of his doctrine is displayed in a systematic way. Nevertheless, he counsels in his preface an order of instruction by select chapters which departs from his scheme, and which he might have adopted as his natural arrangement if formal exposition were not the fashion in works of this kind. We do not say he would have done better thus, but he would have set an example of flexibility in development which it is one of the objects of such manuals, if not to inculcate, at least to illustrate and commend. Possibly, also, there would have been a gain in readability (independent of instruction under a teacher); but, as it is, we think our author has succeeded in his endeavor to interest. Nor does he repel by dog-

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matism, though, like his predecessors, he is not altogether free from the bias of the personal equation. He thinks the word *engineer* "ought to be reserved for the professional man who designs structures, the civil engineer. The man who merely drives an engine ought not to be called an engineer." His advice about postal cards is, "Refrain scrupulously from all expressions of relationship, friendship, or other personal matters. Express no opinions. If possible, . . . omit the signature altogether." He does not forbid the use of *cablegram*, but he thinks the word objectionable on account of its formation. As Macaulay saw no need for *talented*, Prof. Hart dislikes *to wire* as being "a mere doublet of *to telegraph*." In word-breaking at the end of a line he makes a distinction between writing and print, and taboos such well-established breaks as angel-ic, look-ing, port-er, nation-al, complete-ly, cruel-ty, which he calls "bad, at least in writing." Punctuation, by the way, he strenuously confines to the service of the eye and not of the ear.

We have remarked few assertions as being too sweeping. One such (p. 294) is that in the sonnet a carrying over of the meaning from octave to sestet is not permissible, yet Petrarch does it in his lix. *in Morte*. The criticism of defective examples is not always beyond cavil. Tillotson is accused (p. 154) of tautology in certain couplings, since "*deceit* is the same as *cunning*, *effectual* is the same as *serviceable*." A blunder in the use of a relative is charged upon Swift (p. 135) in a sentence whose punctuation by a semicolon expressly denotes the antecedent. It is accounted "a singular blunder" in Ruskin to have written, "What wits anybody had became available to *them* again." Jowett is implicitly censured by the dictum: "*Those sort of*. This is still worse, yet one hears it frequently in conversation," for in the "Charmides" he translates thus: "at least not in this way, or not doing these sort of things?" The subtle unity in the passage from Goldsmith on p. 28 is overlooked in the quest for a formal unity in which the charm of style would have evaporated. Too much countenance is given (pp. 136-8) to the foolish heresy about the specific, rigid use of the relatives *that*, *who*, and *which*, which has sprung up in defiance not only of the best usage but of all-controlling euphony. It is certainly a useful discipline to extract the pith of sentences by omitting dispensable words, but we cannot allege "pleonasm" in every sentence susceptible of this treatment, as, "*There are* many *persons who* deny this," or maintain that this with the other "above sentences would be improved by omitting the italicized words," and that (p. 156) "we should not let a sentence pass until we are satisfied that it is reduced to its most direct and simple terms." Why not, analogically, welcome *wire* as a saving of two syllables over *telegraph*?

Excepting the chapter on punctuation (inadequate in good company, we will allow), we think the strength of this manual lies in Part III., "Some Practical Features of Composition," and "Miscellaneous Subjects." These alone would make it worth the while of any teacher to use Prof. Hart's work either in class or by way of reference.

The Ancient Bœotians: Their Character and Culture, and Their Reputation. By W. Rhys Roberts. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

"Bœotian swine," says Mr. Roberts, "is a scurrilous proverb." So is "Welsh goat," and "Dutch courage," and "Scotch fiddle." The German calls the sediment at the bottom of his pipe a "Polack," and the Pole returns the compliment. There is a fine fund of neighborly malice to be found everywhere in history, and the Attics were no exception; and doubtless it is because we see so largely through Attic eyes that the Bœotians have become a byword for dulness—dulness of intellect and dulness of feeling. They were proverbially pachydermatous, and they accepted the reproach in a pachydermatous way. They may have said to themselves that the Greek word for "swine" was only a bad pun, and we know that the Greeks were tolerant of bad puns. And then the "boar swine" of Homer was a formidable animal and a poetical animal, and the sow was not the worst of female kind, as a certain one of their own poets hath said. So Corinna doubtless shrugged her pretty shoulders when her rival called her if he called her by that ugly name, and Pindar made mock of the charge of dulness implied by the proverb. For all that, the Bœotians have not escaped the brand of history, and Mr. Roberts has done well to review the evidence in his attractive book; and while even he despairs of reversing the verdict, he has pleaded successfully for a mitigation of the sentence.

Of course, one great difficulty lies in fixing the precise limits of the "ancient Bœotians." As soon as we cross the border we are confronted with a mixed population, of which Thebes claimed to be the head, but was not the head as Athens was the head of Attica. Orchomenus never forgot her ancient glory, and Platæa was ostentatiously anti-Theban. In the Persian war the Thebans sided with the invaders, partly from self-interest, partly from hatred of their neighbors. They were no better and no worse than many other Greek states which had not found out that there was a real Greece. Afterwards, when loyalty was the fashion, they put the blame upon the oligarchs, as if they were not an oligarchy at the time they made the plea. Mr. Roberts scores to the credit of the Bœotians the behavior of the Platæans and Thespians at that crisis; but, if we are to be just, their "patriotism" is not to be counted to them altogether for righteousness. There was a spice of anti-Theban malice in everything they did.

And yet, despite differences between the "city-states" within Bœotia—overbearing Thebes, pretentious Platæa, envious Tanagra—Bœotians were Bœotians as Americans are Americans; and just as Americans are "spotted" everywhere in Europe, despite all the differences which we see at a glance, so Bœotians were all more or less alike. They were overnourished by their victuals, which victuals were of the richest quality; and they were very much addicted to making music on wind instruments. Now it is very true that the famous watchword, "plain living and high thinking," might, in the judgment of some people, be as well reversed. "High living and plain thinking" has a great deal in its favor, and yet somehow there has always been a prejudice against the brain power of fat folk; and there is an ancient epigram on the fifer fellow whose sense is blown out together with his breath. But this is too large a theme for development here. Enough, the Bœotians had a certain unity of character, and Prof. Roberts, by his review of the facts, has helped the student of Greek life to understand the Bœotians better. The land of Hesiod, Pindar, and Plutarch needs no glorification in literature; Tanagra, as one risen from the dead, has of late years amply vindicated Bœotia in art; and Epaminondas, "the foremost man of Greece," is a double flower of culture and character that is nowhere to be matched in Greek history. Especially interesting is Mr. Roberts's elaborate parallel between the Bœotians and the Dutch, and yet the Dutch will hardly thank him any more than the Professor of Greek in the University College of North Wales, Bangor, would have thanked, say, the late Dr. Thirlwall for undertaking to unfold the resemblance between Wales and Bœotia.

Palestine Exploration Fund: Thirty Years' Work in the Holy Land. A Record and a Summary. 1865-1895. New and revised edition. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. 256. Illustrated.

The remarkable success of the Palestine Exploration Fund is due to several causes. The Fund is not a religious society, and accordingly it has received the support of Jews and Christians of every church. It has abstained from controversy, though it has not prevented its explorers from expressing their personal opinions on subjects in dispute. The co-operation of the War Department, which detailed officers and men of the Royal Engineers for the execution of the survey, gave to much of its work a guaranty of scientific accuracy, and placed its discoveries beyond the suspicion of serving any sectarian view. But its success is chiefly due to the high character of the persons chosen to conduct its explorations and excavations, and to the enthusiasm and skill with which they have performed their task. Among the best known of these are the late Prof. E. H. Palmer and Lawrence Oliphant, Sir Charles Warren, Sir Charles Wilson, Major Conder, M. Clermont-Ganneau, Messrs. Flinders-Petrie and Bliss, and last, Sir Walter Besant, the efficient secretary from 1868 to 1887, as well as the joint-author with Prof. Palmer of one of the Fund's publications, 'The History of Jerusalem.' He is also the editor of this book, in which is given a brief sketch of the circumstances connected with the organization of the society, and a record of its "thirty years' work," with detailed accounts of the most interesting results of each expedition. It originally appeared in 1886, and is now reissued without material change beyond an indication of the work of the last eight years and the addition of an excellent topical index.

The survey of Western Palestine, which was begun by Lieut. Conder in 1872 and completed by Lieut. (now Gen.) Sir H. H. Kitchener in 1877, is of course the monumental achievement of the Society. Sir Walter claims, with pardonable enthusiasm, that "nothing has ever been done for the illustration and right understanding of the historical portions of the Old and New Testaments, since the translation into the vulgar tongue, which may be compared with this great work." The results have been published in seven quarto volumes, consisting of memoirs or field-notes written to accompany the sheets of the great map; name-lists; papers on archæology, topography, etc.; an account of the excavations and researches in Jerusalem, a description of the flora and fauna of the country, and several maps large and small. The other publications of the society are twenty-eight in number, exclusive of the Quarterly Statement, whose seventeen volumes are a treasury of facts of every kind relating to Palestine and its inhabitants. Among the more recent important works are Mr. Bliss's account of the excavations of Tell el-Hesy, and the volumes descriptive of the par-

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